

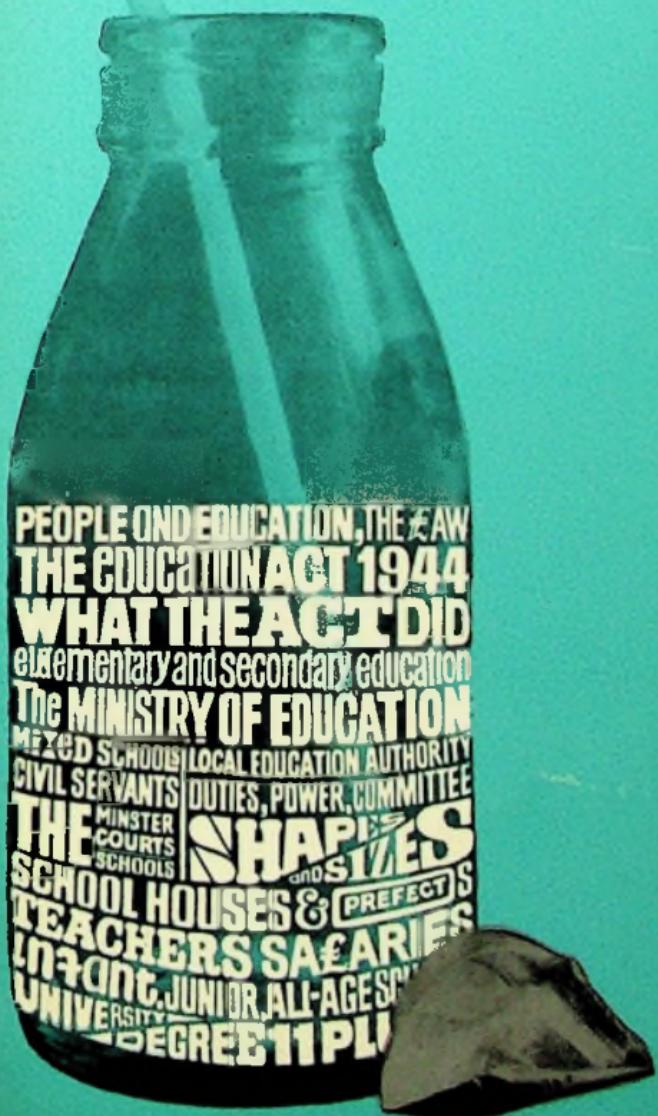


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A Guide to English Schools

Tyrrell Burgess



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A GUIDE TO ENGLISH SCHOOLS
TYRRELL BURGESS

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Preface

Education is a very big industry. Every year some 900,000 children are born in Great Britain, and helping them to grow and mature is the task of education. The annual turnover in education is over £1,200,000,000, or over 5 per cent of the gross national product. This is nearly three times the amount the nation spends on advertising, more than is spent on alcohol and nearly as much as on tobacco. There are some 34,000 schools, over two dozen universities, ten colleges of advanced technology and nearly 9,000 establishments of further education. Well over 300,000 people are employed as teachers alone. (Britain has more teachers than soldiers or miners, and there are more teachers here than there are Whites in Rhodesia and Nyasaland.)

What is more, the 'system' is the result of several centuries' haphazard growth and bristles with exceptions and anomalies. A sizeable number of schools (some 4,000) are independent and only very loosely affected by Acts and regulations. The statutory system itself has been described as 'a national service, locally administered' – and this means in practice that what happens on one side of a county boundary may be vastly different from what happens on the other. The universities are scarcely controlled by the Department of Education – they get their government grants through the University Grants Committee. Scotland and Northern Ireland are laws unto themselves.

To keep this book within reasonable bounds, therefore, it has been decided to limit it to England and Wales, and to concentrate largely on schools and the administrative structure behind them. There is an outline of further and higher education, but a detailed treatment of these topics deserves a book to itself.

The hope is that the book will be a handy guide through the confusion. Increasing numbers of people are coming to need

one. Their aspirations for education often outstrip the country's provision of it. Parents who themselves knew only state schools are becoming interested in independent schools – and vice versa. There are many groups, parental and otherwise, who seek to improve what there is. It is for this reason that the section on administration (Chapter 3) is included and at such length. If a parent is trying to make the most of what there is in education, he will need to be aware of how the whole thing is run and who is responsible for what. For example, it is at best wasteful to be angry with a headmaster for something which really requires you to harry the Secretary of State for Education.

Another consequence of the variety of institutions and the autonomy of local authorities is that it is almost impossible to describe anything acceptably in general terms. Claims for diversity can be overdone. Teachers and education officers often tend to overestimate the extent to which they are unique. Education in England and Wales is diverse, in the sense that the experience of individual parents can be markedly different from one area to another and in different parts of the same area. It is homogeneous in that the pattern of provision (or lack of it), the various stages of education, the kind of things taught, the examinations taken, are all broadly similar. But the only generalization that one educationist will allow another is that you cannot make generalizations about English education. I believe the picture given in this book is substantially accurate. But there are bound to be people who can justly claim that what is said about a group of schools does not apply to *their* school, which is in the group, and there are bound to be organizations who can also claim that, whatever might be true of most bodies, it isn't true of them.

There is one further difficulty, which can be overcome only by an arbitrary decision on the part of the author. What should one call those schools which are part of the statutory system of education? 'Local authority schools' is too cumbersome and does not allow for the influence of national policy. 'County and voluntary schools' is what they are called in the Education Act, 1944, but that is too much of a mouthful too. Maintained schools is official but confusing. The obvious name should be

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'public schools' – because that is what they are, and the term neatly begs the question of who has the most control over them. But it has already been pre-empted by schools which are not in the least public, whatever else they are. We are left with the term 'state schools'. People in education often object violently to this on the ground that it implies a more uniform system than we actually have. It also has totalitarian overtones. I have decided to use it none the less for three reasons: it is brief; most people understand it and use it; 'state' implies to me the whole national and local apparatus of democratically controlled public authorities.

Finally, it is impossible to write a handbook without being enormously indebted to others. In the first place there are the reference books, official and unofficial, which appear in Appendix One. One of these must be especially mentioned: *The New Law of Education* by Wells and Taylor. It is a marvellous guide to the jungle of educational law and is very readable too. A great deal of what one knows comes from people rather than books, and people in education are normally extraordinarily ready to share their knowledge and experience. I am particularly grateful to Dr L. F. W. White, Mr Noel Hughes, Miss Barbara Rees, and officials in the Department of Education. Thanks are due too to the Advisory Centre for Education for permission to draw on material from the journal *Where?* – particularly the glossary and chapters on Choice and Controversies. As every journalist knows the Press office at the Department of Education is extremely helpful: it sees it as its job to explain, rather than hide things. I hope there are no mistakes – but if there are, they are my fault. There has been an enormous amount of typing done on this book, and I hope that Miss Sheila Bland, Mrs Noel Cropper, and Mrs Shirley Fisher know how very much I appreciate their help. My parents' help in correcting typescripts is the very least of their relentless efforts on my behalf. This book is for them because they would probably have bought it even if it had been written by someone else.

People and Education

For most of us the only continuous connexion we have with schools and colleges is when we ourselves are pupils and students. Naturally children, and even most students, are aware only of the institutions which they themselves attend. The class or form teacher or house master probably occupies the foreground of their view of school and the head teacher can easily remain a rather vague figure, even when he claims to know every child by name. For children 'school' is what happens to them. They are rarely, if ever, conscious that their particular school is just one of many, or that other schools may be quite different from their own. Still less do they realize the complicated administrative structure behind it. Why should they? Most of us retain this limited and innocent view of schools and education for the rest of our lives. The next time we see schools is when we ourselves are parents, and our knowledge is usually second-hand – through our children. A very few of us might actually visit the school for open days and concerts or, even more rarely, to consult the head teacher about our children. The more belligerent of us might storm into school in order to threaten a teacher with violence. The most that can be assumed is that however tenuous our connexion with schools, we are probably uneasily aware that they have changed a lot since we were there.

Some really adventurous – normally comparatively rich – spirits actually assume that they ought to choose schools and try to inform themselves about alternatives. Equally adventurous but rather less rich people try to choose among state schools. In both cases the parent is likely to bump up against the administrative structure, the regulations and controls, of which he was previously only vaguely aware. If a parent has a dispute

with the school or local authority he finds himself going very thoroughly into the whole administrative organization. Who, he wants to know, has the power to do what? One of the most interesting developments of the last few years has been the spontaneous formation of local groups for the 'advancement of state education'. These groups, like some parents' associations, find themselves of necessity making a detailed study of schools and of the education 'system', from the Department of Education downwards.

Considering the indifference with which most of us regard schools and the education service, it is worth saying immediately that parents have duties towards their children specially placed on them by Act of Parliament. Under the Education Act, 1944 (the foundation of the modern education service), the duty of seeing that a child gets full-time education is placed squarely on the parent. To be precise, Section 36 of the Act says, 'It shall be the duty of the parent of every child of compulsory school age to cause him to receive efficient full-time education suitable to his age, ability, and aptitude, either by regular attendance at school or otherwise.' In practice this means that parents must not only see that their children get efficient education: they must also, if the child is at a school, see that he attends regularly. The education service exists first to make it possible for the parent to discharge his duty by supplying suitable schools, and secondly, to ensure that he does so. Recalcitrant or incompetent parents are likely, therefore, to come up against the local education authority when they find themselves prosecuted for not sending their children to school. Anxious, ambitious, or simply interested parents are likely to come across the authorities when they want to choose or to change schools. All of us need to know not only about schools but also precisely what arrangements we have collectively made through Parliament to enable us to carry out the duties we have (also through Parliament) imposed upon ourselves.

CHAPTER TWO

The Law: The Education Act, 1944

Education in England and Wales is regulated by the Education Act, 1944. The Act received the Royal Assent on 3 August 1944. It was the culmination of the extraordinarily widespread and insistent demand for educational reform which accompanied the fighting of the Second World War. No one quite knows why the demand arose or why it should have been met so effectively. A similar agitation in the previous world war was nowhere near so widespread, and the 1918 Education Act was far less sweeping. Education probably gained in the 1940s from the prevailing demand for social reform and it was lucky in having as President of the Board of Education Mr R. A. Butler, and as Parliamentary Secretary Mr J. Chuter Ede. One myth is that the demand for reform was started when the children who were brought to light by evacuation were seen to have been reared in ignorance and squalor. Whatever the reasons, teachers and social workers were demanding reform early in the war. In 1941 the Board of Education sent out some draft proposals in a document which was called the 'green book' because of the colour of its cover. The Board was flooded with replies from all kinds of organizations concerned with education, and agitation began in earnest. There sprung up a Council for Educational Advance – supported chiefly by the National Union of Teachers, the Workers' Educational Association, and the Trades Union Congress – to campaign for reform. Mr Butler and Mr Ede consulted and negotiated for months. Eventually, in 1943, they presented to Parliament a White Paper called *Educational Reconstruction*, which became the basis for the new Act.

On the purely educational proposals there was little disagreement. 'Secondary education for all', for example, had graduated from being a revolutionary slogan of the infant

Labour Party to being a reasonable national aim. What argument there was, was about the position of denominational schools. It says an enormous amount for the patience and skill of Mr Butler and Mr Ede (as well as for the pacifying effects of war) that denominational and doctrinal wrangles did not bedevil this Education Bill as they had its predecessors. Some indication of the dangers can be gained from the fact that criticisms of the 'religious' clauses – during the passage of the Bill through Parliament – were usually met by the plea that to alter any particular proposal would upset the delicately poised negotiated settlement.

WHAT THERE WAS BEFORE

Before 1944 English education was the result of a haphazard accumulation of inadequacies over the centuries.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The most historic institutions were the independent grammar schools. These had been founded, often in the Middle Ages (one of them claimed descent from Alfred the Great) through monasteries or cathedrals, or by city companies, monarchs, and other wealthy patrons. Under the influence of Dr Arnold in the last century some of them became 'public' boarding schools with national reputations. These remained independent because their endowments were large and their pupils' parents wealthy. Others were assisted or taken over entirely by the county and county borough councils. After 1902 the councils could establish their own secondary schools, so that by 1939 there were few towns of any size without one. Vocational education was given in technical schools and colleges established since the Technical Instruction Act of 1889. In some areas junior technical schools, taking children between 13 and 16, prepared pupils for a particular industry or industries, but vocational education was chiefly given in colleges for pupils over 16 years of age. In any case, even government committees disagreed between the wars on whether technical schools were really 'secondary' or not.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Elementary education was started by denominational and philanthropic bodies in the nineteenth century. They soon found it impossible to raise enough money by voluntary subscriptions and school fees, and from 1833 the State made annual grants and took powers to inspect the assisted schools. Locally elected school boards with the duty to establish schools where they were needed and the power to raise money by a rate were set up in 1870, and in 1880 attendance at school was made compulsory for every child. The provision of schools both by the denominations and by the boards was the foundation of the 'dual system' of control - vestiges of which are still with us. School fees were finally abolished in elementary schools in 1918. The Board of Education was created in 1899, and in 1902 the duties of the school boards were taken over by the councils of counties and county boroughs and of certain boroughs and urban districts. The 'board schools' became 'council schools'. The 1918 Education Act, which raised the age of compulsory school attendance to 14, required some provision to be made for practical and advanced instruction in elementary schools.

As early as 1926 the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education recommended the reorganizing of elementary schools into primary schools for children under 11 and senior or 'modern' schools for children over that age. The idea was that the school-leaving age should go up to 15 and that the senior schools should offer an alternative form of secondary education to that given in the grammar schools. This reform was held up by the fact that the denominations could not afford to build senior schools and the Board could neither compel them nor help them from rates or taxes to do so. (The denominations could not afford to keep their elementary schools up to modern standards either.) Even if the councils built new secondary schools there was no way of compelling the denominational elementary schools to send on their pupils at 11. Even the 1936 Act, by which the councils could give up to three-quarters of the cost of new denominational senior schools in return for more

control over appointing teachers, was not as successful as had been hoped. In 1939 over half of the elementary schools were denominational. Clearly the legislators of 1943 and 1944 had to remove denominational objections in order to make educational advance possible.

WHAT THE ACT DID

'To the children of the country the main promise of the Act was free secondary education for all.* This promise and the effort to bring together existing educational services meant changes in administration, in school organization, and in the state's relations with religious bodies. The title of the Act was 'to reform the law relating to education in England and Wales' and it introduced the most sweeping changes in that law since the Act of 1870. It replaced and reformed almost all previous law relating to education. The main changes it made can be briefly summarized:

- (1) It created a Minister of Education and charged him with the duty positively to 'promote the education of the people of England and Wales' (see pages 24-44 and 52-6).
- (2) It made the county and the county borough councils the local authorities for education and gave them their powers and duties for education (see pages 44-56).
- (3) It reorganized education in three 'progressive' stages, known as primary (for pupils up to 12) secondary (for pupils over 12 and under 19) and further (for pupils of any age after leaving school). The compulsory school age was raised to 15 – and it may be raised to 16 without further legislation. Fees were abolished in maintained schools (see pages 65-86)
- (4) Denominational schools were brought into the state system as 'aided' or 'controlled' schools. A daily act of worship and regular religious instruction were made compulsory in state primary and secondary schools (see pages 65-9).
- (5) It made registration and inspection of independent schools

* *The New Law of Education*, M. M. Wells and P. S. Taylor, fifth edition, Butterworth, 1961.

WHAT THE ACT DID

compulsory from a date to be specified (see pages 92-3).

- (6) It gave the local authorities certain welfare functions - medical inspection, free medical and dental treatment, 'milk, meals and other refreshments', clothing (if need be), board and lodging for necessitous children, and clothing for physical training for any children (see pages 140-43).
- (7) It made the local education authorities responsible for the special education of handicapped children (see pages 86-90).
- (8) It enabled local authorities to pay fees for pupils at fee-paying schools, to grant scholarships and awards for further and higher education, and to pay maintenance grants for children in state schools (see pages 136-7).
- (9) It gave the local authorities the duty to make arrangements for 'leisure-time occupation in organized cultural training and recreative activities' and to provide, after a date to be specified, compulsory part-time education equivalent to one day a week in 'county colleges' for those under 18 not getting other education (see page 156).
- (10) It required the local authorities to pay their teachers according to scales agreed by the Burnham Committee and approved by the Minister (see pages 60-64). It enacted equal pay for women (against the wish of the Government).

Legally, the provisions of the Act are now in operation, with two very important exceptions. The compulsory attendance of young people at county colleges will be delayed until the Minister decides to enforce it. The compulsory school age will be raised to 16 only in 1970-71.

There have been a number of little Acts since 1944 but they are mostly amending Acts only. They are the Education Act, 1946; the Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1953; the Education Act, 1959, which allows the Minister to give more money to certain categories of voluntary schools; and the Education Act, 1962, which makes new arrangements for grants to students and fixes two school-leaving dates a year instead of three. Children born between September and February, inclusive, leave at Easter; the rest at the end of the summer term. The Remuneration of Teachers Act, 1963 empowered the Minister

to make a single salary award in place of a Burnham award he had rejected. The Education Bill, 1964, which was going through Parliament as this book went to press, allows local authorities to vary the age of transfer from primary to secondary schools and to pay maintenance grants to 15-year-olds in special schools.

In April 1964 the Lord President of the Council, Mr Quintin Hogg, was made Secretary of State for Education and Science, with two Ministers of State. One of these, Lord Newton, was 'associated' with that 'unit' of the new Department performing the functions of the old Ministry of Education. The other, Sir Edward Boyle, who until then had been Minister of Education, was associated with the unit dealing with the universities and civil science. This convulsion took place as this book was going to press, and it may all be changed again after the election. At present, however, the Secretary of State has all the powers and responsibilities of the old Minister – together with some others. In this book the Secretary of State is normally referred to as 'the Minister', his enlarged Ministry as 'the Department'.

Most people in education would claim that the 1944 Act has been a great success. In support of this it must be said that the Act has been remarkably little amended. Most discussion about education takes place in the context of its provisions. As Wells and Taylor say, 'though the national system of education may be criticized, and in many ways justly criticized, yet those criticisms are largely within the framework laid down by the Education Act, 1944, and of the failure so far to realize its promises. Except in detail the Act itself is not criticized.* Looked at another way, however, Wells and Taylor's defence is a criticism in itself. It is not the business of Acts of Parliament merely to make promises. 'Secondary education for all' still eludes us, and the reason is that essential prerequisites (like a school-leaving age of 16 or more and parity of staffing and equipment in all secondary schools) were left in mid-air. One can quite as easily claim that the Act has failed in its main purpose. For the moment, however, we must look in more detail at what education is like in England and Wales in 1964.

* loc. cit., p. 8.

CHAPTER THREE

Administering Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE PARLIAMENT

What happens in education is ultimately the responsibility of Parliament. Parliament enacts legislation laying down the national policy for education and determining how it should be controlled and administered, votes most of the money spent on education, and keeps a general watch through debates and Members' questions. The Minister has a duty under the 1944 Act to make an annual report to Parliament giving an account of the way he has used the powers and duties conferred on him, and of the work of his Central Advisory Councils. This report, which is published by the Stationery Office (the one for 1963 cost 8s. 6d.), always makes interesting reading, and it is supplemented by separate volumes of statistics. Its publication is the occasion for the annual full day's debate on education in the House of Commons. Even when the Minister fails to get the report out on time, as he did in 1961, the debate takes place regardless. This is of course not the only time when the Minister may be called to account in Parliament. It is open to any M.P. to ask Parliamentary questions. The day set aside for oral answers from the Department of Education is Thursday, but written replies are published in the back of *Hansard* on any day. M.P.s may also initiate debates on the adjournment of the House when they feel the reply is unsatisfactory – or for some other reason. New Bills going through Parliament are of course fully debated and the Opposition can force debates on education on any of the days allotted to them. Like other Ministers, the Secretary of State for Education normally finds himself faced by a 'shadow' Minister, on the Opposition front bench, though naturally the Opposition's duties are much less formally defined.

ADMINISTERING EDUCATION

Both sides of the House have Parliamentary Education Groups. In each of the two big parties, about two dozen M.P.s specially interested in education meet regularly in the House to discuss education, to hear experts on particular topics, to question the Minister on occasions privately, and generally to keep themselves informed. (One might add here too that the National Union of Teachers sponsor M.P.s on both sides of the House to keep their interests before Parliament.) The Minister is a member of the Government and a Member of Parliament – though he need not be in the House of Commons. Lord Hailsham, when Minister from January to September 1957, was a peer. (He is now Mr Quintin Hogg.)

THE SECRETARY OF STATE

It was by the 1944 Act that Parliament created both a Minister and a Ministry of Education. The precise words (of Section 1 Sub-Section 1 of the Act) are worth quoting:

It shall be lawful for His Majesty to appoint a Minister (hereinafter referred to as 'the Minister') whose duty it shall be to promote the education of the people of England and Wales and the progressive development of institutions devoted to that purpose, and to secure the effective execution by local authorities, under his control and direction, of the national policy for providing a varied and comprehensive educational service in every area.

Though they may not sound it, these are strong words, and the general power of controlling and directing local authorities in carrying out national policy is very much more definite than the mere power of 'superintendence' formerly given to the President of the Board of Education. The Minister is required actively to ensure that the local education authorities comply with government policy. Under Section 99 the Minister can force the local authority to discharge the duties placed on it by the Act. Section 68 even gives him the power to give such directions as he thinks fit if a local authority acts or proposes to act 'unreasonably'.

The translation of Mr Butler, the last President of the Board

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of Education, into the first Minister of Education on 10 August 1944 was held at the time to be symbolic. It was generally thought that it meant a change of status for the political head of the department concerned with education. Like most status symbols, this turned out to be something of an illusion. The status of any Minister in the country depends on the way he and his office are treated by the Government. One Minister of Education since the war, Miss Florence Horsbrugh (now Lady Horsbrugh), was not even in the Cabinet. In 1957 there were three different Ministers of Education and the office was commonly spoken of as a stepping-stone to better things. When Sir David Eccles left the Ministry of Education in January 1957 to become a president - President of the Board of Trade - this was widely thought to be promotion. It is not unduly cynical to say that when he returned to education in October 1959 some people claimed that the growing importance given nationally to the subject meant that he had been promoted again.

Whatever the Minister's status in the country and in the Cabinet, his status in education was certainly altered in 1944. He no longer, like the President of the Board, passively 'superintends': it is his duty to 'promote' the education of the people. Before 1944 it was the local education authorities who had the chief power of initiative in education. The President of the Board could do little more than state minimum standards, enforce them through the grant regulations and, in circulars and through his inspectors, exhort the authorities to greater efforts. Now the Minister can direct an authority to make almost any improvement he may wish, and no authority can do much of importance without his approval. What is more, the Minister is the arbiter in a dispute between an authority and a parent or parents, or between an authority and the managers or governors of a school. The Minister may even direct an authority to establish, maintain, or assist a training college. In other words, the Minister's responsibilities are extremely wide and his powers correspondingly great. Until recently Ministers of Education have not been the energetic despots which the Act suggests they might be. Early on, in 1947, the school leaving age

was raised to 15 (as laid down in the Act) against the wishes of most people in education, but this now seems to have been a rather exotic show of force. The theory is that there should not be too much direction of education from the centre because this smacks at totalitarianism. Progress is expected to be made by consultation and agreement. It is generally thought that local government is a good thing – and most money that is spent locally is spent on education. The idea of local responsibility and control in education is thus carefully fostered. Educationists normally explain at some length the checks and balances that exist to preserve the freedom of individual teachers, schools, and local authorities from central directives. When most of these seem to be rather flimsy they fall back on the idea of a ‘partnership’ between the central and local authorities. But the partnership is traditional, the power real. Ministers of Education have potentially very great powers, at least so far as administration is concerned. There is almost no reform anyone can think of that cannot be justified under Section 1, Sub-Section 1, of the 1944 Act.

The Secretary of State for Education, like other Ministers, is a ‘corporation sole’ in the terms of the 1944 Act – he is a corporate body in himself and is responsible for everything done in his name or by his agents. He is held in law to do very much more than one man could possibly do, but he is personally accountable for what goes on in education, and if things go badly wrong, he must resign. (Miss Horsburgh, for example, resigned in 1954 because the Government’s policy changed.)

The Minister’s Functions

Personally, the Minister has three main functions. First, he must decide policy and action: in other words, he must put Section 1, Sub-Section 1, of the Act into practice. In formulating his policy the Minister will obviously be influenced by the political philosophy he holds and the party to which he belongs. He may be committed by his party’s election manifesto to a fairly detailed course of action. A Labour Minister, for example, would certainly be expected to begin the re-organization of secondary education on ‘comprehensive’ lines. A Minister may

or may not have had some hand in formulating his party's policy. The British tradition of amateur government backed by professional civil servants means that the Minister can be quite ignorant about his Ministry and its work until the day he is appointed, though it would be silly to underestimate how generally well informed leading politicians are. At all events, what he actually does will be very much affected by his consultations with his colleagues in the Cabinet. In particular, he must compete, as a 'spending' Minister, with all the other 'spending' Ministers for the favour of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. There is a vicious circle which a resourceful Minister must break. If education is held cheaply in the country it will not be well treated by the Government. If it is seen to be badly treated by the Government it will continue to be held cheaply in the country.

This underlines the second personal function of the Minister: to be a spokesman for education in the country. He can do this by his speeches in Parliament and at his own party conferences and other functions. He has plenty of other opportunities too. Professional associations of educationists all have annual conferences and there are always schools and colleges to be opened. A Minister finds that he has plenty of opportunity for speaking and proselytizing for education. The proportion of enthusiastic waffle to firm proposals for improvement is often disappointingly large, but at least two recent Ministers have perceptibly improved the terms in which education is generally discussed.

The third personal function of the Minister is to look after his Department itself and all its complicated dealings with the public, the professional associations, and the local authorities.

The Minister also functions as a member of the Government and of the Cabinet. This means he must read and think about subjects which are nothing to do with his own Department or only marginally relevant to it. The Secretary of State may be a member of a Cabinet Committee on, for example, Central Africa economic policy or regional development. (The Secretary of State when this book went to press, Mr Hogg, was also Lord President of the Council and was responsible for sport). He

must work at these subjects, attend meetings and share decisions. When he does so he is not functioning as the spokesman of his Department, and he is unlikely to get any briefing from it. The better he is, the more likely he is to be a significant member of the Cabinet and thus to spend time on other things than education. All this became more evident when Sir Edward Boyle ceased to be Minister of Education in 1964. He became Minister of State in the enlarged Department, but remained in the Cabinet, in as it were a personal capacity.

The Minister's Day

Every Minister differs – and so does every day – but a Minister may typically get to his office at about ten in the morning. From then until lunchtime he probably sees his private secretary about urgent correspondence or messages, and the permanent secretary and other high civil servants for discussions, to make decisions or to give them instructions on the preparation of a Cabinet paper. There may be meetings to be held, attended by the parliamentary secretary and quite a number of civil servants, minutes and papers to be read, and deputations to be received. Most Cabinet meetings take place in the mornings. In the afternoons, the Minister may attend the House of Commons: he will have to be there if it is his day for answering Parliamentary Questions. If the Government's majority is small, there will be many days when the Minister is kept at the House of Commons all the time it is sitting, perhaps all night. The Minister will probably be busiest when a Bill is being prepared for Parliament. Most Education Bills are quite small, but even then they involve a great deal of preparation. Government amendments have to be settled and the Minister's attitude to amendments by M.P.s and peers has to be decided. If the committee stage of the Bill is taken in standing committee these meetings will start at 10.30 in the morning, though much of this work may be done by a Junior Minister. It is usually during the recess that the Minister visits local authorities, colleges, and schools in various parts of the country or speaks at the conferences of educational associations.

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE

JUNIOR MINISTERS

Departmental Ministers normally have Parliamentary Secretaries who are members of the Government and who assist them in their Departments and in the House of Commons. After the establishment of the Department of Education and Science in 1964, the Secretary of State found himself with two Ministers of State – one for the universities unit and one for the other unit – and two Parliamentary Secretaries, similarly disposed. The Lords and the Commons each had a Minister of State and Parliamentary Secretary in their House. It is difficult to distinguish between Ministers of State and Parliamentary Secretaries, except in pay and prestige. The powers they exercise are those of the Minister and the extent of their responsibility is for the Minister to decide.

A Minister's Parliamentary Private Secretary is not a member of the Government but is a two-way channel of information between the Minister and backbench M.P.s.

CIVIL SERVANTS

The Department of Education is comparatively small, employing about 3,000 civil servants. At its head are the two joint permanent under-secretaries (at the time of writing they are Sir Herbert Andrew and Sir Maurice Dean), who are responsible to the Minister not only for the organization of the Department but also for the advice given by it to the Minister. The permanent under-secretary is also personally responsible to the Minister and the Treasury for finance in his unit and has to answer for the departmental accounts and estimates to the Public Accounts Committee and the Estimates Committee of the House of Commons. Each may have one or more deputy under-secretaries, and below them are the assistant under-secretaries or equivalent officers, each of whom is responsible for one or more of the branches into which the Department is divided.

The branches in the unit which used to be the old Ministry are not particularly static things. New ones are created and old ones

frequently reorganized. Sometimes one assistant under-secretary will be the head of two or more branches. In 1964, for example, Mr J. F. Embling was accountant general (in charge of finance branch) and was also in charge of research and intelligence branch. The head of the legal branch is called legal adviser. The architects and building branch has joint heads: an assistant secretary and a chief architect. The assistant under-secretary for finance is the accountant general. The best one can do is mention the names of the branches as they existed in 1964: schools, further education (1), further education (2), teachers (1), - recruitment, teachers (2) - training, special services, architects and building, legal, external relations, establishments.

Below the assistant under-secretaries are assistant secretaries who run the divisions of each branch, and below them are the principals who run the sections of each division. Some of the principals are known as territorial principals and each of these is responsible for dealing with one or more local education authority. It is to him that the authorities write, and he has to decide whether projects submitted by them conform to the Minister's regulations. It is he who in the first instance will see complaints or appeals by parents against 'his' local authorities. If he cannot make a decision himself he may refer the matter to his immediate superior and it might go right up the hierarchy to the Minister himself. If this happens, the answer comes back down the line to the territorial principal who then writes to the local authority.

There are over eighty people like those just mentioned, all of whom are of the administrative grade of the civil service. There are also eighty or more professional officers - lawyers, doctors, architects, accountants, and so on, a few of whom are in charge of branches. The rest of the 3,000 are executive officers, clerks, messengers, and so on. The Education Office for Wales has its own permanent secretary (though he ranks as under secretary) responsible directly to the Minister and with his own assistant secretary, principal, and so on. The unit concerned with the universities and civil science is smaller and is rather differently organized because it works indirectly through the University Grants Committee and the research councils. There is a deputy

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under-secretary and four assistant under-secretaries: one concerned with universities, two with general science and one with atomic energy. The two units share a director of establishments. The Minister's own staff is called the Private Office. It consists of a principal, an assistant principal, a personal assistant, and clerks. The Private Office acts as the main channel of communication between the Minister and his Department. It arranges for the Department to provide briefs for meetings and draft letters, papers, and notes for speeches; and for transmitting the Minister's instructions, slants on policy, and relevant personal views. A strong private secretary is often the key person in the Department next to the permanent under-secretary. He is the Minister's confidant and knows a lot of secrets. It is a plum job for a principal.

Senior appointments in the Ministry are theoretically made by the Minister. In practice Ministers play little part, so as to avoid political bias and charges of favouritism. The Prime Minister's formal (and sometimes real) approval is required for some posts and the head of the Treasury really decides appointments at permanent under-secretary level.

The offices of the Department of Education are in the heart of Mayfair, in Curzon Street, London W1 – just around the corner and down the steps from the bottom of Berkeley Square and a minute's walk from Piccadilly and Green Park. It is somewhat less handy for the Houses of Parliament. The unit for universities and civil science is in Richmond Terrace, London SW1.

POLICY AND PRACTICE

The Minister does not, of course, formulate policy all on his own. Naturally he will make known early in his career the broad outlines he wishes the Department to follow. But he will expect his civil servants to comment on his ideas and contribute to them. Any ideas the Minister has for policy or action will be the subject of a minute to the permanent under-secretary or the parliamentary secretary. He may call for information or reports on particular questions, or give directions. A great many points of policy will be initiated by the civil servants themselves and in

this case the Minister is the man who decides on what has been put before him. Although the civil servants are not themselves politicians they must know a great deal about politics. Any scheme they put up should at least avoid getting the Minister into trouble in the House of Commons.

What the Department does

Many people find it difficult to imagine what senior civil servants actually do. Perhaps the most readily understandable activity – because the result is obvious – is the preparation of a Bill or a White Paper. The civil servants in the Department will have consultation after consultation with interested parties. With Bills they will work out how the Department wants the law changed and draft papers for the Cabinet. They will brief the Minister taking the Bill through the House. But the Bill itself and all Government amendments are drafted by Parliamentary Counsel, who come under the Lord Chancellor. On the White Paper on technical education published in 1961 civil servants consulted over 1,000 organizations and individuals. A similar process of consultations goes on before the Minister issues regulations.

Even so, the Minister and his civil servants do not spend most of their time on legislation or even on settling big issues of policy. Most of the Department's work is day-to-day administration. It will involve discussing and settling small difficulties. Answering a Parliamentary question may take a principal a whole day or more. When the Minister has to act as arbiter between a parent or a group of parents and a local authority, he and his civil servants will spend a great deal of time on details which may have important repercussions.

When one gets a letter from the Department of Education it may very well begin, 'I am directed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science to . . .' This is an example of the Minister's complete responsibility for everything that is done in his name. The chance that he has actually seen the letter, or directed the writer, is remote.

The work of the Ministry is conducted normally by conference and minutes. Minutes are observations or reports, with

perhaps recommendations for action or inaction. Very often a whole file may be built up as a minute emerges from the comparative obscurity of a principal through the hierarchy to the Minister. This business of civil servants sending notes to each other is often derided – but it is part of the price we pay for parliamentary democracy and Ministerial accountability.

Some idea of the work of the Department of Education can be gained from the activities already described. Its breadth and variety make it impossible to sum up briefly, but a few examples may help.

Money

One way the Department influences what is spent on education, and how, is through the grants of money made by the Government to the local authorities. In this the position of the Department is at least as anomalous as the whole set-up.

The money spent on education comes from three main sources: taxes; rates; endowments, fees, contributions, and so on. The first two of these are by far the most important. The actual spending is done mostly by the local authorities, the Government's contribution (some 50 to 60 per cent) being made in the form of a general grant of money. The Government's contribution, however, is not made through the Department of Education, but through the Ministry of Housing and Local Government. This is because the Government gives a total sum (a general or block grant) to each local authority to spend on all its local government services, of which education is only one, though the biggest. It is up to the local authority to decide how much of the block grant shall be spent on education. The local authorities do get some money from the Exchequer through the Department of Education, but this is spent, not on education at all, but on school milk and meals. It is in the negotiations between the two Departments (Education and Housing and Local Government) on the one hand, and the Association of Municipal Corporations, the County Councils Association, and the London County Council on the other, that the Department of Education influences in so far as it can, the total amount spent on education.

The sums agreed in the negotiations of 1962 were £853m. for 1963-4 and £893m. for 1964-5. These figures, together with sums for other local authority services, formed the basis on which the general grant for the two years was fixed by the Minister of Housing and Local Government. If a local authority spent the agreed amount, it would get the agreed contribution from the Government. If it spent more, the extra money would have to come from the rates.

The Ministry of Education's gross expenditure for the financial year 1963-4 was estimated at £182.7m., of which £70.6m. was in payments to local education authorities, mostly for milk and meals. Superannuation payments to teachers accounted for £43m. and the rest went in grants to voluntary schools, direct grant grammar schools, university awards, and administration. Administration cost about £4m.

Building

The Minister's control over building is much more direct than it is over finance. As even Government committees have found this control and its relationship to the grant-making arrangements confusing, it is as well to try and make it all clear from the start. The amount of block grant is estimated by negotiation two years in advance, and estimates of the amount of likely building are of course taken into account. But the actual proposals for building still have to be submitted by the local authorities to the Department of Education; its power to approve or reject them derives from the Government's control over capital investment in the public sector. When a local authority's proposals have been approved, the authority finds the money for them from the agreed block grant and the rates.

The local education authorities submit their building plans for primary and secondary schools and for further education to the Minister, who approves or rejects them according to government policy at the time and the comparative needs of various authorities. Recently the authorities have been encouraged to compile annual building programmes farther ahead and the procedure for approval of projects has been streamlined. There are two chief classes of project: major works or minor works.

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The names are fairly self-explanatory. Minor works are projects costing up to about £20,000 (you could build three permanent classrooms or a school hall for this) and major works are anything bigger.

The argument for having two classes of project is that if a complete new school (a major work) is built it is marvellous for the people affected but not at all helpful to anybody else. The purpose of the minor works programme is to make it possible to relieve some of the more appalling hardships in schools which are not due to be rebuilt. It is possible, for example, to civilize the lavatories, lay an extra playground, or convert rooms into laboratories as part of a minor works programme.

On the other hand, the minor works programme is much more vulnerable to shifts in Government policy. The Ministry of Education did at last manage to persuade the Treasury that cutting into the major building programme for temporary economic reasons is foolish. It takes four years to approve and build a school, and stopping this in the middle to avert one summer's crises is not sensible. Unfortunately the minor works programme cannot be defended in the same way; in 1961, for example, a two-year programme of £36m. was cut to something like £21m.

The study and approval of building programmes is a major activity of the Department, but it is not the only method of control. The Department lays down minimum standards for school building and maximum limits to the costs per place. This has encouraged local authorities to design schools efficiently, though some of the laggards who are still committed to the pre-war neo-Georgian style have sometimes found themselves squeezed by the minimum standards and maximum costs to the point where they almost could not build. Overall, however, the costs of school building have been drastically reduced since the war.

In 1950, for example, the primary school cost limit was £170 a place. This would have been over £250 at 1963 prices, but the limit in that year was actually £175. In 1964 it was £190. And we have been getting better schools at the same time. Effective teaching space, for example, has gone up from, say 21 to 26 sq. ft a cost place in 1951 to 23–30 sq. ft today.

The Department has done more, however, than simply lay down standards and limits. The development group of the architects and building branch, begun in 1949, has already done a great deal of research into building methods and into the uses to which schools are actually put. The results of their studies have been published in building bulletins, issued regularly, which the local authorities and their architects can study. The Department of Education's architects have been almost unique in studying over a long period the needs of the actual users of the buildings they were concerned with. Many forward-looking authorities, like Nottinghamshire, Buckinghamshire, and Hertfordshire, have profited from this approach and have co-operated with the Department's architects.

When a school needs new buildings, large or small, what normally happens is that the existing inconvenience and squalor moves the head, staff, and perhaps parents and managers or governors, to complain to the local education authority. The local authority considers the matter and puts its own proposals to the governors and head; if there is agreement, the authority puts the project in one of its building programmes, usually a programme for two or three years ahead. The whole programme goes to the Minister, who will almost certainly cut it, probably by half. The individual project may or may not suffer in this. If it is cut out this time it will presumably go into the next programme, until it achieves priority.

Independent Schools

Since 1957, Part III of the 1944 Act has been in operation, and all independent schools have had to be registered with the Minister of Education. At the end of 1963, 2,212 schools were finally registered and 45 were provisionally registered; of these 30 had come into existence during the year. The Minister served 11 notices of complaint during 1963, making 79 since 1957, for deficiencies in premises, accommodation, instruction, or individual teachers. During 1963 there were 4 schools whose time limit for meeting the Minister's requirements for registration had expired. In three of them the requirements were not met and the schools struck off. The other satisfied the requirements

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and was registered. Two others closed or stopped taking pupils of compulsory school age.

Independent schools that wish to do so may apply to the Minister for 'recognition as efficient'. This is described more fully on page 93. For the present it is enough to say that to qualify for recognition a school must be at least as effective as a comparable state school. There were 1,550 recognized independent schools in 1963.

External Relations

The last example of the work of the Department of Education is its contact with overseas. Perhaps the most important aspect of this is the Ministry's contribution to the Commonwealth Education Conferences of 1959 and 1962, and to the measures and committees which arose from them. These have covered the establishment of commonwealth scholarships and fellowships, the training in the U.K. of teachers from the Commonwealth, and the supply of U.K. teachers for service overseas. In addition, the Ministry has helped organize educational conferences with other countries and has taken its proper part in the organization and activities of U.N.E.S.C.O. (the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization).

What the Department does not do

It might be as well to note here what the Department does not do. It does not directly control the universities. These are independent bodies, and such money as they get from the Government is given through the University Grants Committee. Education in approved schools and Borstal institutions comes under the Home Office, education in the services is controlled by the service departments, and children ascertained as unsuitable for education in school are the responsibility of the health authorities. The Department does not itself directly own, establish, or control any school. It does not control the selection, appointment, or promotion of teachers, nor does it pay them directly. It does not prepare, publish, or distribute textbooks, neither does it decide if, how, or when any particular

subject should be taught in schools.* (There is one weird exception to this: the 1944 Act lays down the amount and nature of religious instruction to be given in schools – see pages 68–9.) It does not control or finance museums, art galleries, or public libraries – except, by an odd chance, the Science, Victoria and Albert, Bethnal Green, and Wellington Museums, Ham House, and Osterley Park House.

How the Department works

Regulations

The Secretary of State for Education makes known his policies and requirements in a number of ways. Under the 1944 Act he tells local authorities what he wants in the way of organization and administration and the conditions on which grants will be paid in what are called statutory rules, regulations, and instruments. These give precision and detail to brief and general requirements of the Act. They have the force of law: if a local authority or other body fails to comply with them, the Minister might refuse to authorize the Exchequer's share of the cost of the service involved; in an extreme situation he could take over control from the body concerned.

These regulations are second in importance only to the Act. For example, the Schools Regulations, 1959 (which replaced earlier, similar regulations), govern the repair of school premises, the size of classes, admission to schools, the length of the school year, school terms and holidays and the school day, and the appointment and qualifications of teachers. It is in these regulations and not in the Act itself that the famous limitation on the size of classes appears. It is worth quoting in full:

Size of Classes

- 6 The number of pupils on the register of a class shall not exceed –
 (a) thirty for a nursery class;

* In March 1962 the Minister announced he was setting up a development group on the curriculum on the analogy of the group in the architects and building branch (see page 35). The anxiety this created among teachers' and local authorities' organizations was bearing fruit in a mammoth Schools Council for the Curriculum and Examinations as this book went to press.

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- (b) thirty for a class mainly of senior pupils in a primary school;
- (c) forty for any other class in a primary school;
- (d) thirty for any class in a secondary school:

Provided that if, owing to the shortage of teachers or other unavoidable circumstances, it is not possible to comply with this regulation, the number of pupils on the register of any class shall be such as is reasonable in all the circumstances.

Another good example of the detailed importance of statutory rules and regulations is offered by the Standards for School Premises Regulations, 1959. This lays down, for instance, that the site of a primary school with between twenty-six and fifty pupils shall not be less than five-eights of an acre, that the site of every primary school shall include 'a paved area, laid on suitable foundations, properly graded and drained and suitable for activities to be carried out thereon . . .' and that every primary school other than an infant school shall have playing-field accommodation appropriate to the number of pupils. The regulations also cover teaching accommodation, staff-rooms, lavatories, cloak-rooms, wash-basins, and so on, for both primary and secondary schools.

Circulars

Another way in which the Minister can make known his policies and wishes is by circulars, memoranda, and the like. Many circulars simply explain statutory instruments or otherwise relate to duties imposed by the Education Acts. Circulars and memoranda are not legally binding in themselves, but normally what the circulars say goes. The difference is that the local authorities can argue with a circular: all they can do with a regulation is induce the Minister to bring out a new one. One of the most famous pseudo-circulars is the *Manual of Guidance Schools No. 1*. This deals with the principles governing the parents' right to choose a school. It is not meant to be a substitute for the Minister's consideration of individual cases but it does offer guidance about what his general views are. It is dealt with much more fully on pages 123-4 of this book. A famous — perhaps notorious — circular is No. 8 of 1960, on nursery education. In it the Minister 'values the excellent work

being done in existing nursery schools and classes' but 'cannot encourage authorities to propose any new nursery schools . . . or any enlargement of nursery schools which would require increased staff'. This means in practice that because of the demands for staff and buildings made by primary and secondary schools, the local authorities may not normally expand nursery education. The most numerous documents which the Minister publishes are administrative memoranda. These are normally about matters of routine. Most regulations, circulars, and memoranda may be bought from the Stationery Office or through any bookseller.

Consultation

All these Ministerial documents are not composed solely by the people in Curzon Street and launched on an entirely unsuspecting educational world. Both content and wording are discussed by Department officials, local authorities, teachers' associations, and other professional bodies. Normally it is hoped that a regulation will be an agreed document by the time it is published — though of course the Minister always has the final say. Unanimity about circulars is not so important, though the same sort of consultation goes on.

With whom is all this consultation done? Most day-to-day consultation takes place with Her Majesty's Inspectors (the H.M.I.s). The inspectorate is attached to the Department, but inspectors have something of a special status. Their independence is emphasized and valued. But they cannot pursue policies out of line with the Minister's, and their ability to comment on ministerial policy is much the same as that of other civil servants. Posts in the inspectorate are advertised and are normally filled by ex-teachers. The senior chief inspector is the head of the inspectorate and he is responsible to the joint permanent under secretary. Below him are six chief inspectors who each supervise one particular aspect of education: educational developments, primary education and special educational treatment, secondary education, further education connected with industry and commerce, other further education, the training of teachers. Based at the Department, too, are the staff inspectors. Each of

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these specializes in some particular aspect of education: for example, the teaching of the various school subjects (like classics or geography), the various stages of education (primary, further education, and so on), liaison with other Ministries or with overseas countries and organizations, building, or the youth service. For inspection purposes, England is divided into ten divisions (Wales is a division in itself) and each division into districts. A divisional inspector is responsible for each division and an inspector is allotted to each district.

The most obvious thing the inspectors do is to inspect all schools – state and independent – in their areas. They review and report on the content and value of the education given in the schools, and they may do this either by individual visits or by a full inspection in which a team of specialist inspectors descend on a school for several days. Their reports may be highly complimentary or heavily critical – in both cases they are confidential. Here is one example of the former and two of the latter, as quoted in annual reports of the Ministry of Education, published by the Stationery Office:

A spirit of earnest and sustained endeavour characterizes the work as a whole. The pupils are keen to take advantage of the opportunities offered to them, they are whole-hearted in their application to the tasks in hand, and they present their written work neatly and systematically. For their part, the teachers interpret the syllabuses in a liberal and enlightened way. Much skilful teaching enlists the active co-operation of the pupils and ensures that they make their full contributions to the lessons. In many subjects recording and note making are, in the main, the pupils' responsibility; discussion is encouraged and stimulated; the preparation and reading of papers is becoming a more prominent feature of the work, and, generally speaking, there is a good deal of scope for the exercise of individual initiative and personal responsibility. It is refreshing to note that this fundamentally serious approach to the work operates without undue solemnity on the part of either teachers or taught. An excellent relationship appears to exist between them, largely because they are conscious of working together for a common purpose.

In collaboration with the headmaster, heads of departments have an important part to play in planning the extended courses, in relating them to the work of the school as a whole and in ensuring, through their syllabuses and departmental meetings, that everyone in the school

is offered a well-balanced, varied, and appropriate curriculum. The school is fortunate in having a staff who have confronted these problems with a determination to do full justice to the needs of every pupil, with the result that, though differentiated courses of study are provided, the school appears as a unity.

The standard of handwriting is low. Arithmetic, for which no apparatus of any kind is provided, consists of calculation by the mechanical counting of pencil strokes made on paper. No understanding of processes is achieved at any stage; 5-year-olds were found doing sums in tens and units without being able to add one to two, and at least two of the older pupils in the class, aged 7 and 8, could only reduce pence to shillings or shillings to pounds by making the necessary number of strokes and marking them off in twelves and twenties.

In place of a syllabus teachers are expected to teach from the books provided. But the majority of the textbooks used in English, geography, and the elusive subject called general knowledge or general intelligence, are in fact collections of tests, so that nearly all the teaching in these subjects – more than a third of the pupils' time in school – is not teaching at all but the preparation, performance, and correction of tests. The tests themselves are not directed to building up a systematic structure of knowledge; the questions have all the disconnected variety that characterizes the 'quiz' and if they leave any deposit in the minds of the pupils it can only be a jumbled miscellany of relatively unimportant information.

It is worth remembering that the inspectors do not give orders, either to teachers or to the local authorities. Their job is to inspect, to praise or blame, and to advise. It is the job of those in charge of the schools to do whatever seems necessary. Teachers do not necessarily see an H.M.I.'s report. Once it is complete a report may not be altered except by the writer.

Inspectors do more than simply see that schools and teachers are up to standard. They act as the local representatives of the Department and, more important so far as teachers are concerned, are available for advice. Teachers often feel that the inspectors are a little remote from day-to-day problems and rather better at educational theory than practice, but the fault is not only with the inspectors. Few teachers 'use' the inspectorate as intelligently as they might: perhaps they are deterred by the

inspectors' 'police' functions. As well as advising by whatever personal contact they may have with the schools, the inspectors also run refresher courses and other short courses for teachers. They also very largely produce the pamphlets and booklets issued by the Department to help teachers and inform the public. A good example of this is the pamphlet issued in 1961 called *Science in Primary Schools* (Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 42, H.M.S.O., 2s. 6d.). The contents of this pamphlet include 'the meaning of science at this (the primary) stage', 'constructing the syllabus', 'how far can a topic be pursued?', and notes on books and apparatus. Inspectors also act as go-betweens between the Department and other educational bodies. They sit on boards and committees and join in less formal discussions as observers. What they see in schools and education offices, the suggestions they hear, the grumbles they overhear, can all be translated into pamphlets, proposals, and action.

Apart from the inspectors, who are built-in sources of advice to the Department, the Minister can consult a whole series of people and organizations. He has two bodies imposed on him by law: the two Central Advisory Councils, one for England and the other for Wales. Unlike their predecessor, the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education, the Central Advisory Councils can take the initiative in advising the Minister on educational theory and practice. In practice they have been so busy that this privilege has scarcely been used. The Council for England's penultimate report, normally known as the *Crowther Report* after the then chairman, was on the education of pupils between 15 and 18. This was 'accepted in principle' by the Government and then embalmed. It offers an interesting example of Ministerial sleight of hand in avoiding taking the advice he himself had asked for. The *Crowther Report* argued at length and in detail that the sizes of classes could be reduced and the school leaving age raised to 16 by 1968 or 1969, if the plans were made at once (that is, in 1959). The Minister pleaded that he could not set such a date for raising the school leaving age because his first duty was to reduce the sizes of classes. The Council then set to work under the chairmanship of Mr (now

more detail later. The reorganization implied in the first part of Section 7, and particularly the reorganization of primary and secondary education into separate stages, was begun after the war and is now nearing completion. As if in celebration, the Bill going through Parliament as this book went to press allows local authorities to vary the precise age of transfer to secondary school. The second part of Section 7 seems even more sweeping. The duty to contribute towards the 'moral' development of the community is even assumed to imply that the duties of the authorities include giving sex education. Under a much later section (Section 76) the authorities must have regard to the general principle that (with the numerous qualifications discussed at length on pages 122-30) pupils are to be educated in accordance with the wishes of their parents.

DUTIES AND POWERS

The duties and powers of a local education authority are very extensive. To take their duties first:

(1) They have to see that in their area there are enough schools to give primary and secondary education. Those schools must be of the right size, of the right sorts, and well enough equipped to give all pupils an education offering the variety of instruction and training made desirable by their different ages, abilities, and aptitudes. The authorities must have regard to the need for offering primary and secondary education in separate schools and nursery schools or classes to children under 5, for special training for handicapped children, and boarding accommodation for pupils who are considered by their parents and the authority to need it.

(2) They have to ensure that the school premises of all their schools conform to the Minister's standards.

(3) They must make instruments and articles of management or government for every county primary or secondary school.

(4) They must see that in every county school there is a daily act of worship and regular religious instruction in accordance with an agreed syllabus.

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(5) They must ascertain what children in their area require special educational treatment.

(6) They must see that parents carry out the duties placed on them by the Act to cause their children of compulsory school age to have suitable, efficient, full-time education and to enforce the regular attendance of the children at school.

(7) They must make adequate arrangements for further education.

(8) When county colleges come to be founded, local authorities must establish and maintain them and enforce the attendance of young persons.

(9) They must provide medical inspection and see that medical attention is available free to pupils in their school.

(10) They must provide, in accordance with regulations, 'milk, meals and other refreshments' for pupils in their schools.

(11) They are responsible for adequate facilities for recreation and social and physical training in their area.

(12) They must suitably cleanse verminous pupils.

(13) They must offer, where necessary, free transport for pupils or pay reasonable travelling expenses.

(14) They must examine any child of 2 or over who appears unsuitable for education in a school and inform the local health authority if he is so.

(15) They must carry out directions of the Minister requiring them to establish, maintain, or assist a training college.

(16) They must supply the Minister and the Minister of Health with such reports and information as they require.

(17) They must appoint a Chief Education Officer.

(18) They must keep an account of the monies they get and spend.

Those are the duties of the local education authorities. In addition they have a large number of powers which they may exercise, either subject to the approval of the Minister or in accordance with the regulations.

(1) They may establish a new school and maintain as a county school one that was a voluntary school before 1944, or they may cease to maintain a school.

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- (2) They can group schools under one management.
- (3) Subject to limitations they can control the use of voluntary schools' premises.
- (4) They may control secular education in schools.
- (5) They may normally control the appointment of teachers.
- (6) They can provide board and lodging for pupils, and if necessary they can provide clothing for pupils.
- (7) They can make special arrangements for children to be educated otherwise than at school.
- (8) They can stop the employment of any child, if it is prejudicing his health or otherwise making him unfit to obtain the benefit of his education.
- (9) They can cause any of their educational establishments to be inspected.
- (10) They can make arrangements for 'milk, meals and other refreshment' or clothing for pupils at independent schools.
- (11) They can pay expenses of children at their schools to enable them to take part in school activities, and they can pay the fees or expenses of children at independent schools and grant scholarships or other allowances to pupils over the compulsory school age.
- (12) They can assist research and organize conferences about education.
- (13) They can give money to any university or university college.
- (14) They may accept gifts – for educational purposes.
- (15) They may compulsorily purchase land required for the purposes of their functions under the Act.

SHAPES AND SIZES

There are 131 local education authorities in England and 17 in Wales, making 148 in all. These are the councils of the 62 administrative counties and of the 85 county boroughs, and one joint educational board for the Soke and City of Peterborough. (After 1965 Middlesex will disappear and there will be eighteen additional London boroughs.) They vary enormously in size, population, and financial resources. The London County

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Council (or, after 1965, the Inner London Education Authority) has a population of over 3 million (that of Norway) and its expenditure on education is about £80m. The county of Rutland has only about 26,000 people in it and spends nearly £½m. on education. The product of a 1d. rate in Bournemouth is £37,700: in Gateshead it is £12,500. The area of the Lancashire authority is 1,878 sq. m. – 15 times that of Middlesex, which is 117 sq. m.

EDUCATION COMMITTEES

The ordinary elected members of county councils and county borough councils need not know anything about education: they are elected to exercise all the responsibilities of local government. For this reason the 1944 Education Act required every local education authority to establish such education committees as were necessary to carry out their functions in education. The arrangements they make for this have to be approved by the Minister. In practice each council appoints one education committee which in turn appoints several sub-committees to deal with particular aspects of education. For example, there are invariably sub-committees for primary, secondary, and further education. Every education committee must include people with experience in education and people acquainted with local educational conditions. At least a majority of every education committee must be members of the education authority. The authority themselves must consider a report from the committee before exercising any of their functions in education and may authorize an education committee to exercise any of their functions in education except borrowing money or raising rates. Minutes of education committees are open to inspection by any local elector for a fee of not more than one shilling.

There is room for wide variations in the amount of power an authority may delegate to its committee. Some leave almost all decisions to the committee and simply formally approve them in full council. Others expect committees to make recommendations only and these have to await discussion and approval by the council.

ADMINISTERING EDUCATION

Probably most local councils nowadays are elected on party lines, and the policy of a council and its education committee can change quite drastically with the change of control. For example, after the war Middlesex, with a Labour majority, decided to establish a system of comprehensive schools. In 1949 a Conservative majority reversed this decision. On the other hand, Essex has had a change of political control at almost every election since the war, and this has in itself meant that the political parties have not drastically reversed each other's decisions. As with parliamentary elections, people do not normally vote with education chiefly in mind. They elect councillors to run the whole apparatus of local government and vote as much on national as on local issues. This is slightly less realistic in local than in national elections because education is by far the largest and most important function of local councils: in Parliament its place is more modest.

The people ultimately responsible for education in a county or county borough are the elected local councillors. The chairman of the education committee is bound to be a person of great influence, and the chairmen of sub-committees are also important and influential. Normally, when some educational question comes before the local authority, it is taken to the education committee, who will more than likely refer it to the appropriate sub-committee. When the report of the sub-committee is received the education committee will make a decision and refer it for approval, formal or otherwise, by the council. Anything that involves spending money is discussed with the council's finance committee, because their concurrence is vital. Throughout all these deliberations the council and committee members have the help and advice of salaried officials just as the Minister is assisted by his civil servants.

The permanent paid officers of the local education authority are headed by the chief education officer. He may be called the education officer, director of education, or secretary for education, but whatever he is called, he must exist. Under him there is a hierarchy of deputy and assistant education officers, perhaps with special responsibility for particular branches of education. The local education authority may have its own

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inspectorate (who are not the same as H.M.I.s and who are responsible to the chief education officer). The authority will also normally have people called organizers or county advisers for music, physical education, horticulture, bee-keeping, and so on. Also on the staff of the education authority are the county librarian, the county youth employment officer, the school medical officer, and the dental officer, and perhaps the architect and the treasurer, though these last four officers may be shared with other departments of the council.

The range of institutions run by the local education authorities is very impressive. There are, of course, the normal primary and secondary schools. There are also nursery schools and special schools, both day and residential, for handicapped or maladjusted children. A local authority is likely to run technical colleges, colleges of art, and farm institutes. It will have a whole lot of youth employment bureaux and may well run a teacher-training college. Colleges of advanced technology are now becoming universities and being financed through the University Grants Committee, but they were originally founded and supported by the local education authorities. All the new universities founded since the war have been largely supported, until they received their charters, by local authorities. At Brighton, for example, the four local authorities in Sussex gave the site and the working capital to see the project launched.

It is the local authority, too, that decides which kinds of schools there should be, whether infant and junior schools shall be housed in the same building, and whether these schools shall be co-educational or not. More important in some ways, it is the local authorities which decide what kinds of secondary schools there shall be and how many of each. The county of Anglesey has no secondary modern schools and no grammar schools – only four comprehensive schools. In parts of Leicestershire secondary education is organized quite differently from anywhere else. All children go to common high schools at 11 and then choose themselves whether to go on to grammar schools at 14: the only condition is that they should agree to stay at school until they are 16. Elsewhere the traditional combination of grammar and secondary modern schools is normal –

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but how many of them shall be co-educational or how many shall be boarding schools is a matter for the local authority. The schools, colleges, and other institutions run by the local authorities are described in Chapter 4 of this book.

THE AUTHORITIES—AND PARENTS

It is all very well describing the Department of Education and the local authorities, and listing their duties and powers. But education is a personal matter. It succeeds or fails with children not with systems. A parent may be overwhelmed by the special problems of his child and puzzled where to look for help. Authority assumes many varied aspects. When a parent wants something, who is competent to give decisions — or even to advise? Is it the teacher, the chief education officer, the ‘committee’, or the Department of Education? Often a parent feels that all these are in a conspiracy to make him and his child conform to the pattern they think best. All this is characteristic of modern society. Anyone with an individual need finds himself confronted with our administrative organization of laws, regulations, and officials, all giving, or purporting to give, decisions. How is the parent to know who is really responsible and who should really decide?

THE LAW

Decisions in education are based ultimately on law, that is, the series of Education Acts from 1944 onwards. Individuals making decisions — whether they are teachers, a clerk in the education office, a chief education officer, an officer of the Department of Education, or even the Minister — express as individuals decisions based on law. Nobody can authorize a procedure that is prohibited by law or refuse a right that is specifically granted by it. For example, full-time education from 5 to 15 years, at school or not, is compulsory. This is an encroachment on the liberty of individual parents and children, but the encroachment is limited by law. No authority from the lowest to the highest can compel a child to receive full-time

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education before the beginning of term following his fifth birthday, or to remain in full-time education a day longer than a stated time following his fifteenth birthday. To a parent who wants his child to leave a few days early to take a job, the answer is final, whatever the need of the parent, the quality and opportunity of the job, or the weakness of the child at school. In this matter, the Minister has no more power than the school, the welfare officer, or the head teacher. They are all bound by the Act. So is the parent, and if he objects there are only two things he can do: the first is to break the law by taking away the child regardless and hoping the local authority will not prosecute; the second is to change the law, by agitation and political action.

Two curious examples of this principle occurred recently. The 1944 Act gave the Minister the right to accept or reject the recommendations of the Burnham Committee, which negotiates teachers' salaries, but not to modify them. In 1963 the then Minister of Education wanted to redistribute a Burnham award so as to increase differentials. But in order to do this he had to get a special Bill through Parliament giving him the power to determine the award. Discussions on a new Burnham machinery were taking place as this book went to press. Similarly it will not require an Act of Parliament to raise the school-leaving age to 16 because the 1944 Act already provides the machinery for this, but it did require an Act (in 1962) to establish two leaving dates a year instead of three while the age was still 15. So if a parent wants an action taken or curbed, a right allowed or an abuse stopped, the first question is, what do the Education Acts say on the point?

THE COURTS

But an Education Act may be poorly framed. It may be ambiguous, or various sections of it may have become inconsistent as a result of amendments during its journey through Parliament. It may need interpretation as to what Parliament really meant or as to its relation with the legal principles of society. When there is a clash of opinion the authoritative interpretation is given by the courts. Again, people giving decisions on behalf

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of authority have to do so within the framework of legal decisions on the subject.

For example, the Education Acts say that the statutory walking distance for a child up to 8 is two miles, and over 8 three miles. Under that distance the authority cannot be compelled to pay bus fares or provide transport. Over that distance, it must. But how do you measure three miles? Is it along a road, across a field, the way the bus goes, from the doorstep, or from the bus stop? Can the authority pay half the fare or merely the part over two or three miles? What happens if there are no pavements or if the traffic is exceptionally dangerous? And supposing one child lives 2·9 miles from a school, his friend lives 3·1 miles but in the same road, and the bus stop is in the middle – what then? Clearly dozens of particular problems arise from the seemingly simple statement, and on all of them the courts have decided. It has been decided, for example, that a route need not be a road, and that distance, not safety, is the test for deciding the nearest available route.

Another example is a curious one. The law says that compulsory full-time education ends at the school-leaving date following a child's fifteenth birthday. But when does a child reach its fifteenth birthday, and at what time during the day? What about the child who is 15 on the day that term starts? The courts have decided on this. A person attains a given age at the beginning of the day before the anniversary of his birth. On these and similar points the Minister and the authorities, and the officers who act for them, are bound by the decisions of the courts. Only Parliament can make the law – and only the courts can determine what it is.

THE MINISTER

Another source of decisions arises from the Minister's power to make regulations. These have been described on page 38. Once made, regulations have the force of law, though the Minister can make regulations only where he is given specific power to do so by Act of Parliament. The Education Act says a child between 5 and 15 years must have full-time education, but

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'full-time' has been defined by the Minister in the Schools Regulations. On a whole series of educational matters the Minister has issued regulations which are binding on authorities and officers. So after a parent has discovered in a particular case what the Education Acts say about it and what legal judgements have been given, his third question is, has the matter been covered by Ministerial regulation?

THE LOCAL AUTHORITY

Formidable as all this is, it still leaves a lot to local discretion. No local education authority can violate Acts of Parliament or act contrary to legal judgements or the Minister's regulations, but there are opportunities for local variations. Some local authorities find it necessary to impose local uniformity. Holidays are a good example. The Act says that pupils of compulsory school age should have full-time education. The Schools Regulations say this means that a school shall be open on a minimum of 400 sessions (200 days) of the year. The authority regulates the main dates of the holidays but often leaves to local governors or managers, or to the schools themselves, the dates of half-terms and other minor holidays.

Again, the Act says that education for pupils over 12 shall be secondary (as distinguished from primary) in character. The decision about what kinds of schools there shall be (grammar, secondary modern, or comprehensive, for example) and which particular kind of school a pupil shall attend is a matter for the local authority. The actual course of instruction, the curriculum and organization of the school, is a matter for the headmaster and his staff. If a parent wants a council to do something involving a new decision or spending money, the people to go for are the councillors themselves, the elected or co-opted members of the education committee and, where appropriate, of the finance committee. If a parent doesn't like what they decide, all he can do is try to change them at the next election. If a local education authority does something within its discretion that a parent objects to, the parent's only redress is to persuade the authority to change their minds – or to undertake political

action to change the composition of the county council and through this of the education committee. It is possible to appeal to the Secretary of State under Section 68 of the 1944 Act that the local education authority are acting unreasonably, but in practice the Minister rarely overrules the authority. A recurrent example of this is that authorities sometimes wish to change a co-educational school into two single-sex schools or vice versa. If parents object to this, their remedy has always to be through local campaigns to change either the minds or the actual composition of the education committee. Parents who have appealed to the Minister have normally found that he will not act.

If a parent wants something done within the context of decisions already taken by the education committee, he should go and have a word with an officer at the local education office. If he wants some special treatment or consideration, or if he feels that he has been hardly dealt with, his remedy is through his elected representative. Although the chief education officer and his staff may influence greatly the decisions of the committee (in some areas there are whispers of dictation by the chief officer) the decisions are those of the committee and the officer can only act consistently with them.

THE SCHOOL

Traditionally in Britain, the courses of instruction offered in a school, its organization, ethos, and curriculum, are matters for the head teacher and staff. If a primary school headmistress insists that a child wait a term or a year before going up from the infant to the junior department, or if a secondary school headmaster cannot or will not allow a child to take a particular subject, there is little a parent can do about it. He can appeal to the education officer, but is likely to be told that what goes on in schools is the responsibility of the head. He can appeal to the governors, but they are not likely to make the head change. All the parent can do is try to persuade the head to change his mind. Failing that, he can only remove his child to another school, if this is possible.

CHAPTER FOUR

The Schools

All schools in England and Wales are to some extent governed by Act of Parliament. It is, for example, illegal to run a school that is not registered with the Department of Education, and registration may be refused if the school is not good enough. But one big distinction can be made at once, and that is between state schools and independent schools. There are several kinds of schools in each of these groups, and the purpose of this chapter is to describe them, starting in each case from schools for the very youngest children and working up. It may be as well to show at the beginning that a child's journey through state and independent schools proceeds in similar though not identical stages.

STATE		INDEPENDENT	
Age	Type of School	Age	Type of School
2-5	nursery	2-5	nursery
5-7	infant	5-8	pre-preparatory
7-11	junior	8-13	preparatory
11-18	secondary (secondary modern, grammar, comprehensive, etc.)	13-18	public, direct grant, etc.

Independent schools for younger children very often will not fit into precise categories and the change to secondary schools for girls often takes place at 11 in independent as in state schools. Children in state schools often exchange full-time

formal education at 15 or 16 for apprenticeships or some form of part-time study while at work.

Before describing different kinds of schools, it may be as well to discuss those things which most schools have in common.

(i) *School Organization*

The basic organization of most schools is chronological. In a way this is forced on them by the Education Act. Children must be more or less the same age when they start at a primary school, when they transfer from primary to secondary school, and when they leave. Whatever combinations or groupings may be devised, most children go through their school lives in company with their age-equals. Thus the children entering secondary school go into the first form, move on together at the end of the year to the second form, and so on up to the fifth or sixth form. The syllabuses they follow are normally arranged to be self-contained within a year. The exceptions to this are in the infant school, where children may 'go up' from one class to another more than once a year, and in the sixth forms of grammar schools, where the work is normally planned over two years. As usual in education nomenclature varies considerably but in secondary schools at any rate an age group (say the 12- to 13-year-olds) is known as a form or year.

If 100 children enter a school at the age of 11 they can clearly not be taught as one group and they are thus split up into smaller groups. These smaller groups, with say thirty children in each, are called classes (or, to confuse the issue, forms). However much a class may move around or be split up for particular subjects, it will normally have a class teacher and a classroom in which it keeps its books and things. As a general rule a class will stay with one teacher very much more in the primary than in the secondary school.

In secondary schools there are all kinds of exotic groupings imposed on the straightforward class system. The children may be grouped according to their ability for specific subjects and

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the divisions will perhaps be called 'sets'. A year with three classes may even be sub-divided, for modern languages, say, into four sets. Setting is also possible where the children have a choice of subjects. A fourth form of three classes may divide into three quite different sets, two doing geography and one doing biology. Perhaps an example will make this clear. A child of 13 may be in the third form of his grammar school. The class with whom he is normally taught may be class 3A. The form may be divided into four sets for mathematics and our boy may be in set 3/2 or 3/3. There may be a choice between woodwork and German and our boy may choose to be in the only wood-work set rather than one of the two German sets.

Where basic class divisions in any one form or year are made according to ability, this is known as streaming. The most able children are in the A stream, the least able in the D, E, or perhaps even the L stream. Sometimes the existence of streaming is disguised by giving the classes the initial letters of their teachers' names rather than A, B, or C. In 'posh' grammar schools they may add a touch of colour by calling the streams alpha, beta, and gamma. Streaming can start as early as the junior school, and when it happens here it often leads to a great deal of criticism from parents. It need hardly be added that when in secondary schools the classes are themselves streams the whole apparatus of setting and subdivision can still be superimposed.

School 'Houses'

Most schools have some kind of 'house' system. As the name implies, this derives from the practice of boarding schools. Boys or girls there actually live in different houses, and house spirit and inter-house rivalry emerge naturally. In day schools 'houses' can be somewhat artificial creations – though a lot of big schools are turning to some sort of house system as a way of making certain that the children have some member of the staff as well as a class teacher or subject teachers to turn to and rely on. In a boarding school the role of the house master is an obvious one – he stands very much *in loco parentis*. A day school house master may have the same function but he will in the nature of things see much less of the pupil and will not need to

exercise so much semi-parental responsibility. The most obvious demonstration of a house system and the house feeling in day schools is the school sports day, though there may be all kinds of other house rivalries, in team games, play competitions, and so on.

A faint echo of the house system is also prevalent in primary schools. The 'houses' tend to have homely names like blues, greens, and reds, or robins, eagles, and swifts, and their chief function may be disciplinary. Every week the good and bad conduct points gained by members of the houses in their normal class work and play may be read out in school assembly. The 'houses' may also be the basis for *ad hoc* rivalries in physical education lessons. In the secondary schools the houses can also be used as a way of giving more pupils responsibility. There can be only one school captain. There may be four house captains. A class has one form captain but may have four form house captains.

Prefects

Another practice which has spread from boarding schools into day schools is that of appointing senior pupils to hold authority. In practice this normally means helping to keep discipline at times when the school comes together or is moving about. In boarding schools the house captain may exercise all but the most extreme disciplinary powers of the house master. The head of the school in boarding schools is a really splendid figure. In day schools there is less for the prefects to do but they are expected to contribute to the 'tone' of the place, stop people running in corridors, and try and impose some kind of table manners at lunch times. They may also have some administrative duties, like organizing school prayers. Secondary modern schools have often imitated the system - with better results in some than in others.

TEACHERS

There are two main ways in which people become teachers. They either go to a university and get a degree or they take a

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three-year course in a teachers' training college. The people who take a degree may or may not do a year's teacher training before they go into schools. One can still at present be recognized as a qualified teacher by the Department of Education simply on the strength of a degree. Over the country as a whole a quarter of the teachers in state schools are graduates. Of the graduates, over 40,000 have been trained as teachers and 16,000 or so are untrained. There are rather more than 6,000 non-qualified teachers in a total teaching force of some 280,000.

The qualifications for entering a teachers' training college are somewhat lower than those needed for going to university, but they are by no means as low as they appear on paper. The minimum entrance requirement for a teachers' training college is five passes at G.C.E. O level. In fact only 7 per cent of all the candidates going into training colleges in 1963 had only the minimum qualifications and probably very many of these had taken some form of sixth-form course at school. Increasingly the training colleges are demanding at least two A levels for entry – 40 per cent in 1963 had two or more A levels – and two A levels are the minimum requirement for universities.

There are two main kinds of teachers' training college: the general college and the specialist college. The specialist colleges concentrate on training teachers for particular subjects like housecraft (now called home economics), physical education, handicraft (woodwork and metalwork), music, drama, or arts and crafts.

In the general colleges a teacher's training is made up of four interrelated elements. First there is the student's own personal education. Colleges differ, but in most of them a student chooses one or two subjects and takes them to as high an academic level as he can. He starts at A level and probably reaches something like the standard of a pass degree. Second, training college students study 'education'. They study children and young people as they grow up – how they think, how they feel and how they learn. They also study society and the underlying ideas about the education of children in it. This part of the course includes a certain amount of history, philosophy, psychology,

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and sociology. Third, the students learn about teaching methods and the theoretical basis of teaching particular skills and subjects. Fourth, a large part of the course is taken up with practical work in schools. Students first observe children in classrooms, in playgrounds, and in recreation centres. Gradually they get the chance to take lessons of their own and get continuing practice in doing it. They may do some experimental or research work under the guidance of their college supervisor. And they are likely to be introduced to all kinds of schools – not only primary and different kinds of secondary schools, but also special schools for the handicapped.

The year's training for graduates resembles the teacher training course in all its essentials except that the personal education of a student in his specialist subject is taken pretty well for granted. By and large, graduate teachers find themselves teaching in state and independent grammar schools, non-graduate teachers in secondary modern and primary schools.

Teachers' Quota Scheme

In the general shortage of teachers, some local authorities have been worse off than others. Genial resorts on the south coast have naturally found it easier to find teachers than depressing slums in the industrial north. The quota scheme is an attempt to distribute teachers more equitably over the country as a whole. Each local authority is notified of the maximum number of teachers of all kinds which it may employ each year, and the hope is that, when a salubrious authority is full up, teachers will look elsewhere for jobs. Part-time teachers and married women who have been encouraged to return to teaching are not covered by the quota system.

Teachers' Salaries

In 1919 a committee to deal with teachers' salaries was set up under the chairmanship of Lord Burnham. Under the 1944 Act the successor of this first committee gained statutory recognition. The committees which negotiate teachers' salaries are still known as Burnham committees and their recommenda-

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tions are known as Burnham awards. The present chairman of the Burnham Main Committee is Sir Thomas Creed, the principal of Queen Mary College, London.

The Burnham Main Committee deals with the salaries of teachers in primary and secondary schools. It has hitherto consisted of two panels. The employers' panel contained nine representatives of the County Councils Association, six each from the Association of Municipal Corporations and the Association of Education Committees, three from the London County Council, and two from the Welsh Joint Education Committee. The teachers' panel included sixteen representatives of the National Union of Teachers, four from the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions, two each from the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters, the Incorporated Association of Assistant Mistresses, and the National Association of Schoolmasters, and one each from the Incorporated Association of Headmasters, the Incorporated Association of Headmistresses, and the Head Teachers' Association. There are other Burnham Committees for technical teachers, training colleges, inspectors, organizers and advisory officers, and farm institutes. In the past the recommendations of the Burnham Committees had to be approved by the Minister of Education, and although he had the power to reject them he had no power to amend them.

In 1963, the then Minister wanted to redistribute the Burnham award, giving more to differential payments. To do this he had to pass the Remuneration of Teachers Act. When this book went to press discussions were going on between the Department of Education, the teachers' organizations, and the local authorities associations on reforming the Burnham Committees, so as to give the Minister a place on them. The Minister has suggested he should share the employers' panel with the local authorities. He has also suggested provision for arbitration in the event of deadlock – an arbitration award to be set aside only for 'weighty reasons of public policy'. This latter phrase was causing suspicion as this book went to press.

The salary scales are complicated but a teacher's salary depends on whether or not he is recognized as qualified, the

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length of his training, whether he has a 'good' honours degree or another sort and whether he teaches in London or not. On top of these basic scales there are further allowances which are made to teachers with special responsibilities. For example, a careers master may get an allowance: so might a teacher in charge of a subject in a secondary school or one working in a special school. Head-teachers get allowances depending on the numbers on the school roll, with a special weighting for older pupils. A deputy head gets a smaller allowance assessed in the same way.

The teachers' superannuation scheme is administered centrally by the Department of Education. It is a contributory and unfunded scheme. Teachers and employing authorities contribute at the rate of 6 per cent each and this is paid into the Exchequer, which bears the charge for pensions, gratuities, and refunded contributions. The benefits payable include annual pensions on retirement and a lump-sum allowance, ill-health awards, and death gratuities. The teachers' associations are campaigning for a widows', orphans', and dependants' scheme, and for some arrangement whereby the pensions of retired teachers are geared to current pensions scales.

Independent schools are not bound by Burnham awards and are not covered by the superannuation scheme. In order to compete for staff, however, they have to offer Burnham scales – or more. Pay increases for teachers in state schools are normally followed, or shrewdly preceded, by increases for those in independent schools.

HIERARCHY

To an outsider the most obvious thing about English school organization is its hierarchical nature. The head is a (perhaps benevolent) despot, whose sway is tempered, if at all, only by interference from outside or intransigence from the staff. Normally what he says goes. Among the staff the house masters of boarding schools have their own domains. In day schools the senior subject teachers or heads of departments to some extent control the subjects and staff in their charge. The ordinary

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teacher is normally a law unto himself in his own classroom. The pupils are similarly arranged. The head boy or head girl leads a team of prefects or monitors, and they are all appointed either by the head or by the staff of the school. House masters appoint house captains and they in turn choose the people below them. There are very few teachers in England who can imagine schools organized in any way different from this. One example will do to point this hierarchical system: the staff of a school normally have no say whatever in the appointment of a new head.

This has big implications for freedom and the exercise of responsibility. Head teachers in particular are probably freer here than anywhere else in the world from outside pressures of any kind, be they from the authorities or from parents. There is a similar tradition of absolute freedom for teachers inside their own classrooms. What is more, an enormous number of the things done in the school - the out-of-school activities, the sports - are very often run, at any rate in grammar schools, by the pupils. Even in primary schools selected pupils may be responsible for the arranging of flowers in the hall and standing on sentry-go as the school marches in from the playground.

(ii) *Kinds of School*

STATE SCHOOLS

It may be as well to deal with terminology first. Officially, state schools are called 'maintained schools' or 'grant-aided schools'. As the second of these terms is extremely confusing this is the last time it will appear in this book. A maintained school is one in which the teachers are paid, the general cost of running the school borne, and the inside of the school building 'maintained' by the local education authority. As explained in the preface, 'state schools' is simpler and more readily understandable.

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COUNTY AND VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS

State schools are of two kinds, county and voluntary. County schools are provided by the local authority and maintained by them inside and out.

Voluntary schools are those which were initially built by the denominations. Their present status is the result of the compromises made in the 1944 Act in order to create a more uniform system. There are three sorts of voluntary schools: controlled, aided, and special agreement. In a controlled school the local authority is responsible for maintenance inside and out. It appoints two-thirds of the managers or governors and also appoints the teachers, but the managers or governors must be consulted over the appointment of the head teacher and of any teacher giving denominational instruction. Most controlled schools are Church of England schools.

In aided schools it is the governors or managers who maintain the outside of the school building and make enlargements or alterations to it. Religious instruction is controlled by the governors or managers, and the governors of secondary schools control secular as well as religious instruction. The authority, however, has to be satisfied about the qualifications of teachers giving secular instruction. The voluntary body itself is responsible for appointing two-thirds of the managers or governors. If the managers or governors do alter, enlarge, or improve the buildings they may get a grant of up to 75 per cent of the cost. This grant comes direct from the Ministry after approval there and it does not go through the local authorities, though these are consulted. Nearly three fifths of the aided schools are Church of England schools. All but two Roman Catholic schools are aided, or special agreement.

Special-agreement schools are a hangover from the Education Act of 1936. Local authorities may by special agreement pay between a half and three-quarters of the cost of building a voluntary secondary school. Two-thirds of the governors are appointed by the voluntary body and the rest by the education authority. Maintenance of the school is divided between the local authority and the voluntary body, as in an aided school.

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The governors control religious instruction and normally have to be consulted over the appointment of teachers giving denominational instruction. The local authority appoints the other teachers.

The numbers of state schools, their pupils, and teachers are set out in the table below taken from the Department of Education's *Statistics of Education*, 1963, Part I (H.M.S.O. 15s.)

STATE SCHOOLS 1963			
<i>Kinds of Schools</i>	<i>Numbers of schools or departments</i>	<i>Numbers of pupils</i>	<i>Numbers of teachers</i>
<i>Primary</i>			
Nursery	458	23,273	928
Infants	5,500	978,383	31,793
Junior with infants	12,151	1,694,338	59,359
Junior without infants	4,828	1,341,748	43,242
All-age	604	130,077	4,919
<i>Secondary</i>			
Modern	3,906	1,609,307	75,934
Grammar	1,295	722,492	38,845
Technical	204	92,504	4,907
Bilateral and multilateral	66	47,274	2,366
Comprehensive	175	179,013	8,927
Other secondary	245	130,192	6,215
<i>Total</i>	29,432	6,948,601	277,495

The following table lists the state schools except nursery, special, and special hospital schools according to whether they are county or voluntary.

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COUNTY AND VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS

1963

	<i>Junior and infant</i>	<i>All-age</i>	<i>Secondary</i>	<i>Total</i>
County	13,774	166	4,981	18,921
Voluntary (total)	8,705	438	910	10,053
<i>including:</i>				
Aided C. of E.	2,926	67	123	3,116
R.C.	1,467	303	301	2,071
Other	49	2	90	141
				5,328
Controlled C. of E.	4,127	61	80	4,268
R.C.	1	—	1	2
Other	132	4	166	302
				4,572
Special-agreement				
C. of E.	2	—	31	33
R.C.	—	1	116	117
Other	—	—	1	1
				151
Not determined				
C. of E.	1	—	1	2

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

It has already been noted that there is one curious exception to the general rule that the curriculum and syllabuses of the schools are matters only for the head teacher and staff. Section 25 of the 1944 Education Act says: 'The school day in every county school and every voluntary school shall begin with collective

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worship . . .' and 'religious instruction shall be given in every county school and every voluntary school.' There are fairly elaborate arrangements for parents to withdraw their children both from the act of worship and the religious instruction if they want to, but every school is compelled by law to provide both unless it can be shown to be physically impossible. In county and controlled schools religious instruction has to be in accordance with an agreed syllabus drawn up by representatives of the religious denominations, the teachers, and the local authority, though in controlled schools there are provisions allowing parents to insist that their children receive instruction in the original denomination of the school. In aided and special-agreement schools the religious instruction has to be in accordance with the original trust deed.

The provisions in the Act about religious worship and instruction are so eccentric and so against the normal practice of allowing teachers freedom as to what they teach that they can only be explained as part of the elaborate bargaining of 1944. In order that children should be properly educated the denominational schools had to be brought up to standard. The only way of doing this was by government action. Government action meant increased government control, and the Government had to offer something in return. What was more, many nonconformists, for example, objected to Anglican indoctrination being financed from the rates they paid; hence the controlled schools. The result of the consequent horse-trading fixed the anomalous religious provisions in the 1944 Act and the agreed syllabuses on the schools of England and Wales.

MANAGERS AND GOVERNORS

All state schools have to have a body of managers or governors. Primary schools have managers, and secondary schools governors. The object of this is to see that every school can have an individual life of its own as well as a place in the local system. Under the 1944 Act aided schools retained a large measure of independence and it was thought desirable that other state schools should have reasonable autonomy. Managers and

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governors are appointed under instruments of management or government made for county schools by the local education authority and for voluntary schools by order of the Minister. The instruments vary according to the history, tradition, and circumstances of individual schools. In schools other than aided schools, the local authority appoints either all or two-thirds of the governors or managers; the other one-third might be representatives of minor authorities or, in the case of controlled schools, a third might be foundation governors. In aided schools one-third of the governors are appointed by the education authority, and two-thirds are foundation governors. The governors and managers must meet at least once every school term and the local education authority may inspect the minutes of their meetings.

The 1944 Act did allow for several schools to be grouped under one body of managers. This seems to go against the idea that every school should have an individual life and corporate feeling of its own. Schools are normally grouped either when the local education authority has difficulty in finding people sufficiently able and willing to be governors and managers or when it has plans for grouping schools together eventually as a multilateral or comprehensive school.

People often ask what managers and governors do, and well they might. The rules of management of a primary school are made by the local education authority, and the managers therefore have only such powers (except those mentioned in the Act) as the authority feels like giving them. The articles of government of secondary schools, however, must be approved by the Minister, and in voluntary secondary schools they must be made by him. The articles must determine the functions to be exercised by the local authority, the governors and the head teacher. The Ministry of Education gave guidance in drawing up articles in a White Paper called Principles of Government in Maintained Secondary Schools (Cmd 6523). There it was suggested that the governors and the authority should be associated in appointing a head teacher, either by a joint committee consisting of equal numbers of governors and authority representatives or by the authority from a short list

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drawn up by the governors. The appointment of assistants, it was suggested, should be by the governors in consultation with the head, subject to confirmation by the authority. As for internal organization and the curriculum, the authority would settle the general educational character of the school and its place in the local system, and the governors would have the general direction of the school and the curriculum, while the head would control the internal organization, management, and discipline of the staff. In practice the governors do not interfere with the curriculum. The responsibility for deciding what kind of secondary education an individual child should follow remained with the local education authority too. It was suggested that the governors and the head should play a part in the selection of pupils for their particular school. Disputes should be settled by the Minister. Within limits the managers and governors of aided and special agreement schools control admissions; this power is regarded as crucial by the denominations in preserving parental choice.

Practice can and does vary from one school to another and from one area to another, but governors of secondary schools are normally active only when staff are appointed and when the dates of minor holidays have to be decided. Children and their parents get a fairly accurate picture of the governors' position from school speech day. At some point the visiting speaker asks the governors to grant an extra half-holiday. The chairman says that he has consulted the governors (when normally he has patently failed to do anything of the kind) and is happy to announce that the request has been granted. The very strong tradition that what goes on at a school is the business of the head teacher normally ensures that the governors have next to no influence on it. Even in the appointment of staff, where they might be supposed to have some say, it is in practice very rare for the governors to do anything but follow a lead given by the headmaster. So far as powers are concerned, they inhabit a kind of no-man's land between the local authority and the head of the school.

It is a mistake, however, to assume that there is no point at all in having governors and managers. If they are active and

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interested they can help a school create an individual life of its own. Many of them are members of the local authority or are well known to someone who is, so there is some chance that decisions will be made about a school on the basis of at least some personal knowledge or contact. And if it comes to a dispute the governors or managers are a ready-made lobby. They can, and often have, formed the basis of an action committee to campaign, petition, and appeal. For example, on those occasions when a local authority has wanted to amalgamate two single-sex schools into one co-educational school (or vice versa) it has most frequently been the governors who have formed the nucleus of protest. Normally, however, the governors turn up at school functions, try to remember the names of the teachers, occasionally badger the authority for improvements to the school premises and hold themselves available for consultation and discussion with the headmaster.

NURSERY SCHOOLS

At the beginning of the term after a child's fifth birthday, his parent is compelled by law to see that he receives full-time education. In practice this means that the children are compelled to go to school. There are many parents who think 5 is too young to start school, but there are many more who want their children to go to school before 5 – at 2½, say, or 3. The most obvious reasons for wanting this are physical ones. A child who lives in a town flat or a city street needs somewhere to spend the day, or part of it, where he can run about and play in safety with someone keeping an eye on him. A parent who is widowed, divorced, or unmarried and who has to be out at work will need someone to look after the children. Even mothers who are at home all day can do with a rest from children. Some children are ready for school much earlier than others: they do not wait for administrative convenience or even Acts of Parliament. They may be sociable and enjoy being with large groups of other children for much of the day. Others may need a gentle introduction to the rigours of full-time school, perhaps mornings or afternoons only.

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Advocates of nursery schools go farther. They say that in small, isolated families a child does not get the chance to build up enough relationships either with other children of about his own age or with a number of adults. Few single homes can be as rich in variety of experience as a good nursery school, physically, emotionally, and educationally. In any case, the best nursery schools are the 'balanced' ones: schools which are not restricted to those cases where need of various kinds is the chief criterion for admission.

When a mother starts looking for a nursery school, she might be confused by the existence of both nursery schools and day nurseries. Broadly speaking, the difference is in the word 'school'. A day nursery meets a social need: it minds children while their parents are at work. A nursery school is an educational establishment and is more positively concerned with the children's development. Nursery schools also operate during the normal school hours and observe normal school holidays. Day nurseries are normally open for longer and remain open virtually all the year round. What is more, you pay according to your income for day nurseries run by the local health authority: the local education authority's nursery schools are free.

This book is principally concerned with education and will concentrate on nursery schools. The most obvious fact about them is that there are not enough. There are 450 or so run by the local education authorities, taking over 22,000 children under 5. There are also over 180,000 children under 5 in ordinary primary schools, but most of these are in fact over 4. As there are over two million children of nursery school age, the 22,000 places in local authority nursery schools mean that only one child in 100 can go to them. This situation is likely to continue because the Minister of Education reaffirmed (in Circular 8 of 1960) an earlier decision that the local authorities must not provide for more nursery school children for the present. Recently this ban has been eased - where the provision of a nursery school would free married women for teaching in the normal schools. In some places there are waiting lists of several hundreds: a hidden demand which would emerge if the places were available.

As well as the local authority schools there are twenty direct grant nursery schools, nine independent nursery schools recognized as efficient by the Department of Education, and a number of recognized independent schools which have nursery departments. There are also 200 or so unrecognized independent schools and unrecognized schools with nursery departments. There are many small play-groups in halls or private homes which may be unknown to the education authorities because they do not count as schools. A new movement called the Pre-school Play-groups Association has been formed to encourage mothers to establish play-groups for themselves. Not only are there too few nursery schools but those that do exist are very unevenly spread. A parent might find that there is some choice near by: he is more likely to discover that there is only one possibility, and probably most people do not have a nursery school of any kind for miles.

Nursery schools run by the local education authorities and the few independent nursery schools recognized as efficient are staffed by certificated teachers with special training in nursery school work, assistants with the certificate of the National Nursery Examination Board and, quite frequently, by students in training. A nursery class in a primary school should have one teacher and one full-time assistant to thirty children. In a separate nursery school the regulations say there must be one teacher and one full-time assistant for every twenty full-time children: and in nursery schools (unlike other schools) the limitation on the size of classes is strictly enforced.

A nursery school will have space where play can be uninhibited indoors and out. The children spend a lot of time playing on the floor. In summer they move easily from the classroom to the open air, using water, sand, modelling clay, books, toys, climbing frames, planks of wood, and perhaps old car tyres and battered boxes. At times the teachers tell them stories or read to them and there will probably be some singing round a piano or listening to a gramophone. Many children go to nursery schools for only part of the day, either mornings or afternoons. Those who go full-time normally have lunch at school and have a rest period afterwards. This is why nursery schools have low canvas

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rest beds and coloured blankets. Nursery schools normally take a great deal of trouble to introduce the children to school carefully. Their methods vary; some teachers believe in gradual weaning, others insist the child will be all right when mother has gone. Some teachers believe it may take weeks before children feel secure enough to be left alone. Others prefer the child to attend regularly and alone but perhaps only once or twice a week at first.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The first of the three stages of education laid down in the 1944 Act is called the primary stage. The Act says that local education authorities must offer full-time education suitable for junior pupils – which means children under 12. The Act seems to imply that this duty to children starts from the day they are born. They have the more explicit duty, from which they are at present relieved by the Minister's circular, to provide nursery schools for children of 2 and over. The compulsory school age begins at 5 and the authorities must provide enough primary schools for all the children over that age in their area.

Most children, therefore, start school at 5 in a primary school and go on at 11 or 12 to the next stage of education in a secondary school of some kind. A primary school may be divided into two parts – infants and juniors. These may be in separate buildings and have separate head teachers, but they are normally very close together or are housed in the same building under one head. Over 12,000 of the primary schools are junior-with-infants' schools. There are 5,500 separate infant schools and 4,800 junior schools, each with its own head. In 1963 there were well over four million children in primary schools with nearly 140,000 full-time teachers to teach them, under 5 per cent of whom were graduates. Primary schools are normally quite small; most of the infant schools, for example, have between 100 and 300 pupils, and most of the junior schools have between 100 and 400. There is much more variation in the size of junior-with-infant schools; 1,200 of them, for example, have under 25 pupils. The great majority of them have under

200. Almost all primary schools are mixed schools. In fact, of the 123,000 primary-school classes only 2,400 are for boys alone and slightly fewer for girls alone.

The most obvious fact about state primary schools is that the classes are enormous. In January 1963 twice as many children were in classes of over 30 as there were in classes of under 30. There were 18,000 classes of between 41 and 50 pupils and a few – 109 in fact – with 51 pupils and over. The Schools Regulations say that 40 should be the maximum size of a primary school class, but over England and Wales as a whole about 15 per cent of primary classes are oversize by this standard, about a fifth of primary school children are in oversize classes, the average number per teacher is 28·7 and the average size of class is 32·6.

Infant Schools

What goes on in British infant schools has been called ‘probably the world’s most ambitious pattern of beginning instruction’.* The methods, to outward view, may seem like an extension of those used in nursery schools. The classroom is normally free and probably noisy. The children are likely to be in groups doing quite different things. Some may be keeping shop, selling each other goods, and keeping accounts; some may be engaged on a ‘project’, like making a model village. Others will be in a cluster reading together. Even when the whole class is doing more or less the same thing, they are likely to be doing it, not as a body, but in smaller groups. Parents who think of classrooms in terms of rows of desks are often surprised to find that in infant schools the desks are rarely, if ever, in rows. They may be grouped together in squares or placed around the walls. They are often moved about or used as a platform for a class playlet or dispensed with altogether. The infant teachers do what they can, in short, to counteract the effect of large classes. They keep the children in smaller units and offer to each group in turn and to the children in it the individual attention that would be impossible if the class were treated as a whole. It is

* Martin Mayer, *The Schools*, Bodley Head, 1961.

assumed that by the time children are ready for the junior school they will be able to read and write and do simple addition and subtraction of numbers. Between two-thirds and three-quarters of them actually do this.

Junior Schools

At seven or so, children go on from the 'infants' to the junior school. The junior school has the same kind of staff, the same size of classes, and basically the same approach as the infant school. Parents often feel that the transition from the 'infants' to the 'juniors', even more than starting school at 5, marks the transition from play to 'real work'. In many schools this difference is not stark. In most, however, the basic attitudes and methods of the primary school become overlaid with more 'academic' preoccupations when the children pass the age of 7. The selection procedure at 11 casts its shadow forward. 'Streaming' begins (see pages 154-5). The children are consciously graded and teachers begin to have conscious or unconscious expectations of each grade as a whole. The change is subtle and difficult to pin down, but it is in the junior school that teachers normally begin to set standards and judge the children by their success in measuring up to them. Rigidity about the age of transfer from one class to another often starts here too. A date is chosen and all children of a particular age on that date 'go up' to the next class. In many areas the child who is one or two days too young may be 'kept down' although he is physically and mentally advanced.

The curriculum in the junior schools begins to be arranged more formally into individual subjects. What was for the infant teacher a rough guide to the sequence of the day's variety becomes in the junior school much more like a time-table. The children have set periods of arithmetic, reading, and composition, which are all 11+ subjects. As they approach the examination, they may be given 'practice' (not, of course, 'coaching') in doing intelligence tests. They will do other subjects too: nature-study, history, geography, singing, drama, physical education, religious knowledge, and so on.

All-Age Schools

Despite the fact that in 1944 it was determined that primary and secondary schools should be in separate buildings there were still in 1963 over 600 unreorganized all-age schools taking children for the whole of the compulsory school age from 5 to 15. There are 130,000 children in them and nearly 5,000 teachers. Just over two thirds - 438 of them - are denominational schools. But all-age schools ought to have disappeared in a year or two.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The second stage of education laid down in the 1944 Act is the secondary stage. One is hard put to it to discover precisely what 'secondary' really means. The people who had campaigned for 'secondary education for all' certainly had something more in mind than that pupils should transfer to a different school building at 11 and have their school life extended to 15 or even 16. Before 1944 the Board of Education Regulations for Secondary Schools said that a secondary school was one for pupils who intended to remain there at least four years and up to at least the age of 16. It had to offer general education to an age range of at least 12 to 17 and had to offer instruction in English, at least one other language, geography, history, mathematics, science, drawing, singing, manual instruction or domestic subjects, and physical exercise. The most obvious mark of a secondary school, however, was that it offered courses leading to the School Leaving Certificate. Certain credits in certain subjects in this examination were recognized by universities and professions as an entrance qualification. Secondary schools also prepared pupils between 16 and 18 for the Higher School Leaving Certificate. Before 1944 admission for the 1,400 schools of this kind was by examination, and competition was very keen. In a very few areas there were junior technical schools which took pupils normally at 13 and prepared them for work in an industry or particular groups of industries. The Spens Report in 1938 recommended that more of them should be

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established and that they should take children at 11. This was to be an alternative form of secondary education to that offered by the grammar schools.

By the 1944 Act the local education authorities had to provide sufficient schools offering secondary education and this was defined as 'full-time education suitable to the requirements of senior pupils'. A senior pupil was later defined as 'a person who has attained the age of 12 years but has not attained the age of 19 years'. In other words the Act is much more vague than the Board's regulations, and local authorities have a great deal of discretion. The fact that they have to provide for pupils up to 19, if parents and pupils want it, has allowed for the extraordinary recent movement called the 'trend': more children staying on at school after the statutory school-leaving age. But, as even conservative commentators admit, secondary education in the sense in which it was understood before 1944 is by no means available to all children over 11. It is to the schools which are called 'secondary' that we must now turn.

Secondary Modern Schools

Most children in England and Wales go to secondary modern schools. These are the senior elementary schools of before 1944 – promoted. In 1963 there were 3,906 secondary modern schools taking well over a million and a half children and employing nearly 76,000 teachers, about 17 per cent of whom were graduates. They come in all sizes – there are two dozen schools in the country with less than a hundred pupils and a score with over a thousand – but schools of 200–300, 300–400, and 400–600 are extremely common. The average size of classes in secondary modern schools is 28·6, and the pupil-teacher ratio 20·1, but over half the secondary modern classes in the country have more than 30 pupils. A child in a secondary modern school is more likely to be taught in a mixed class than in a single-sex class. (There are nearly 32,000 mixed classes as against about 12,000 each for boys and girls alone.) There are, of course, whole schools for boys and girls only. There are places where the boys' and girls' classes are in different buildings round the same playground or where the boys and girls

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are in different ends of the same building. Sometimes, in a mixed school, the boys and girls will be taught separately for all or part of the time. For some subjects like physical education, domestic science, or metalwork they are bound to be taught separately.

When the new notices went up outside schools proclaiming that they had been changed overnight from elementary to secondary modern, a great deal was expected of them. The Ministry of Education expected that they would offer 'a good all-round secondary education, not focused primarily on the traditional subjects of the school curriculum but developing out of the interests of the children'.* One is tempted to add that if the Ministry knew what they meant then they are unlikely to claim to do so now. At all events, there was no determination that the secondary modern schools should be secondary in the pre-1944 sense. There were to be 'different types of secondary education'. It was hoped that teachers in secondary modern schools would experiment and discover what kind of education ought to be offered to the pupils in their charge. It is scarcely surprising in view of the vagueness of the early aspirations that the secondary modern schools as a whole have not achieved any distinctive ethos. Basically secondary modern schools have gone on offering the old elementary school curriculum, including religious knowledge, reading, writing and arithmetic, some elementary history and geography, and a certain amount of drawing, singing, and physical education. This kind of education is secondary only in name. Many of the schools offer more. Some, while sticking to a very limited curriculum, nevertheless offer some opportunity for more advanced work perhaps up to the standard of an external examination. Others have tended to specialize in one or more subjects outside the basic curriculum and have evolved special courses, probably with a vocational bias. A child might take arts and crafts, cooking, needlework, furnishing, rural science, music, seamanship, shorthand and typing, general science, or academic subjects for G.C.E. In a

* *The New Secondary Education*, Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 9, H.M.S.O., 1947. Reprinted 1958.

few secondary modern schools one can come across a fairly powerful science side or a devotion to foreign languages. In the academic years 1961-2 (the latest for which figures are available, 5.7 per cent of leavers from secondary modern schools attempted G.C.E. O level. Under half of these got three or more passes, and only one in eight got five passes or more. In 1963 only about 40 per cent of secondary modern schools entered candidates at all.

Grammar Schools

The second largest number of children of secondary age go to grammar schools. Some people trace the ancestry of the grammar schools back to the time of Alfred the Great. Be this as it may, they are the heirs of the pre-1944 secondary schools. In 1963 there were 1,295 grammar schools taking 722,000 pupils taught by 39,000 teachers, about 78 per cent of them graduates. Like secondary modern schools they vary greatly in size but are, if anything, usually rather larger. Nearly three quarters of them, for example, have between 400 and 800 pupils. The average size of classes in grammar schools is 28.4, and the pupil-teacher ratio 17.9. Just over half of them are over the regulation maximum of 30. A child in a grammar school is very much more likely to be taught in a single-sex class than a mixed one. There are nearly 9,000 boys' classes, and over 8,000 girls' classes compared with over 8,000 mixed classes.

The grammar schools are in many ways recognizably the secondary schools of before 1944, though their academic standards are higher. Children normally stay in them until the end of their fifth year (whereas many children leave secondary modern schools before the end of the fourth year) and are prepared for the G.C.E., which has succeeded the School Leaving Certificate, at O and A levels. The subjects normally offered include religious instruction, English language, English literature, modern languages (French usually, German often, Italian and Spanish rarely, and Russian almost never), Latin (very occasionally Greek), mathematics (pure and applied), chemistry, physics, biology, history, geography, art, music, woodwork and metalwork for boys, housecraft for girls, and

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physical education. Some take additional subjects like engineering, architecture, economics, commercial subjects, and philosophy, and a few do things like gardening, agriculture, and horticulture.

In addition to all this, most grammar schools have a flourishing group of 'out-of-school activities'. These may include a debating society, a music society, an art club, a museum, a history society, a geographical society, a chess club, and a mountaineering society. Most of these will be organized by the pupils. Sport, which has a place in the time-table, spills over into after-school hours too. School teams play football or hockey matches on Saturdays and athletics training goes on in the long summer evenings. The boys' schools may also have a cadet force of some sort.

Entry to grammar schools is competitive. The process, known as the 11+, is described on pages 103-8. What happens is that the local authority notes the number of grammar school places there are and devises a scheme that will fill the places and keep everybody else out. The process varies in different parts of the country both in its methods and the numbers it rejects but it is defended by educationists on what they take to be educational grounds. The argument is that the distinguishing feature of grammar school courses both before O level and in the narrower range taken in the sixth form lies 'in their length, in the scholarly treatment of their content and in the stern intellectual discipline' they afford. Consequently, it is argued, the grammar school is appropriate only for the intellectually able boy or girl. This naturally does not explain why a grammar school is appropriate in Wales for children with I.Q.s which would be considered inadequate in England.

Other Secondary Schools

There are comparatively few secondary schools which are neither secondary modern nor grammar - about 700 out of nearly 6,000. The most numerous single group are the technical schools, of which there are 204. After them come a group of 175 comprehensive schools and 66 bilateral and multilateral schools. In the Department of Education's statistics for 1963

there are 245 'other secondary' schools, mostly central schools, and in the 600 all-age schools there are over 25,000 pupils of secondary age.

Technical Schools

The technical schools are the heirs to the junior technical schools of before 1944. The 204 in existence in 1963 were 16 fewer than the year before. They took under 100,000 pupils and employed over 5,000 teachers, about half of whom were graduates. They vary even more greatly in size than other secondary schools. Technical schools with under 300 pupils are almost as common as technical schools with over 600. The average size of classes in technical schools is 27·2, and the pupil-teacher ratio 17·70. Just under two thirds of their classes have under 30 pupils. A child is twice as likely to be in a single-sex class as in a mixed class. There are in fact in the technical schools 1,500 boys' classes, 700 girls' classes, and 1,200 mixed classes. Many of the technical schools do not have their own separate buildings but form part of a technical college. Very often their teachers are shared with the college.

The fact that the number of technical schools is now falling (in some places it is official policy to close or change them) is in direct contrast to the hopes that were held for them before 1944. The Spens Report recommended that their numbers should be increased and that they should offer an alternative form of secondary education to the grammar schools. The Ministry of Education spoke of the schools in 1947 as being for a minority of able children who would do best if their curriculum were strongly coloured by industrial or commercial interests. Such were the expectations that educationists began speaking of the three kinds of secondary school which were available for the three kinds of secondary pupil - grammar, technical, and modern. The word tripartite came to be used to describe the secondary system. Even now some educationists still talk as if a strictly tripartite organization were being modified by the establishment of comprehensive or multilateral schools. In fact the tripartite system has never existed in more than a very few places.

It is hard to account for the failure of the technical schools to

catch on. It is true that a lot of people in education have always thought them unnecessary, but they also have very strong defenders. The chief difficulty was that although entry to them was competitive they remained overshadowed by the greater prestige of the grammar schools. Both parents and teachers tended to think of the technical schools as a second best. Some education authorities confirmed this by making it clear that children of a lower I.Q. could be accepted for technical schools after they had been rejected by the grammar schools. The impression was further confirmed by the fact that entry to technical schools remained at 13 and the grammar school rejects went to them after two years in a secondary modern school. The subordination of many of the schools to a technical college whose buildings they shared was another disadvantage in a system where the autonomy of the head teacher is prized.

As one might expect, the technical school curriculum is basically similar to that of a grammar school, though it may not offer Latin and Greek or more than one foreign language. It is doubtful whether technical schools do more maths or sciences than grammar schools but they are certainly biased still towards particular trades like engineering or building. The pupils might get rather less history, geography, English literature, and music, though art may take a higher, if industrially biased, place. Out-of-school activities may play a smaller part than in a grammar school.

Though the technical schools offer courses leading to G.C.E. they also prepare pupils for other external examinations like the Royal Society of Arts Technical and Commercial Certificate examinations. Their close links with the technical colleges mean that many of their pupils will go on to take Ordinary and Higher National Certificates, rather than G.C.E. A level and a degree. Half of the teachers in technical schools are graduates, two-thirds as many as in grammar schools, and three times as many as in secondary modern schools.

Comprehensive Schools

The 175 comprehensive schools represent the most radical attack on the organization of secondary education which

emerged after 1944. Briefly the idea is that a comprehensive school should take all the children of a given neighbourhood, from the least to the most able, and offer within the one school courses appropriate to all their needs. It must be said at once that nowhere, except in Anglesey and the Isle of Man, has this meant the end of the 11+ examination as such, but it does mean that in many places, like some areas of London and Coventry, the results of the 11+ procedure have become of chiefly academic interest. There are in the 175 schools nearly 180,000 children and 9,000 teachers. They tend to be very large: 88 of them have over 1,000 pupils, though there is one with under 100. The average size of class is 28·2 and the pupil-teacher ratio 18·6 and there are more mixed classes (3,567) than there are single-sex classes (nearly 1,500 boys and just under 1,300 girls).

Half the classes have under 30 pupils. There are no separate figures in the Department of Education's statistics for the proportion of the staff in comprehensive schools who are graduates, but the percentage for comprehensive, bilateral, and multilateral together is 45·6. The practical effect of this is that children who would have been rejected from the grammar school get a much greater chance to be taught by graduate teachers and are much more likely to come up against algebra and modern languages than similar children in secondary modern schools.

Bilateral and Multilateral Schools

These curious titles describe curious arrangements. Briefly, the bilateral school is in effect two departments on the same site. For example, a grammar department and a technical school may together be called a bilateral grammar-technical school. Similarly, grammar, technical, and secondary modern departments may be built together, share, at different times, of course, the playing fields and swimming bath, and be called multilateral schools. The theory is that proximity will mean that transfer of pupils is easier between departments. In practice this is doubtful. In 1960 there were 66 bilateral and multilateral schools taking 47,000 pupils and with over 2,000 teachers. The schools tend to be large: two thirds of them have over 600 pupils and nine of them have over 1,000. The average size of class is 28·6, and the

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pupil-teacher ratio 19·1. Over 1,100 of the classes are mixed compared with 211 for boys and 327 for girls.

'Other Secondary' Schools

Most of the 245 'other secondary' schools known to the Department of Education are central schools left over from before 1944. A central school was one run under the Elementary School Code of Regulations, but which often had a commercial or industrial bias, and to which entrance was by examination. The central schools which still exist represent a sort of half-way house between the secondary modern and grammar schools. There are over 130,000 pupils in these schools, with 6,200 teachers. The schools are large: mostly between 400 and 800 pupils. The average size of class is 28·6, the pupil-teacher ratio 19·4, and over 2,200 classes are mixed, compared with 1,000 for boys and girls.

The Leicestershire Plan

One more attempt to alter the organization of secondary education must be mentioned. It is the exotic plan evolved in Leicestershire which divides the secondary stage into two parts. The local high school takes all the children in an area of all abilities and is in effect a junior comprehensive school. At the age of 14 all children who choose to do so may go to a grammar school providing that they and their parents agree to their staying on until they are 16.

Other authorities are now toying with variations of the Leicestershire plan – though the plan will itself need to be modified when the new school-leaving age keeps all pupils to 16 anyway.

SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL TREATMENT

Clearly if the local authorities are to offer such a variety of schools as are desirable in view of the abilities and aptitudes of the pupils, they must accommodate those pupils who suffer from any disability of mind or body. They must offer appropriate special educational treatment – either in special schools

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or otherwise. Ten categories of pupils requiring special educational treatment have been defined by the Minister of Education in the Handicapped Pupils and Special Schools Regulations of 1959. These are: the blind, partially sighted, deaf, partially deaf, delicate, educationally subnormal (E.S.N.), epileptic, maladjusted, physically handicapped, and those suffering from speech defects.

Every local education authority must ascertain what children in their area require special educational treatment. Any of their officers may give notice in writing to the parent of any child over 2 that the child must be submitted for examination by a medical officer of the authority. If a parent refuses to comply without reasonable excuse he may be fined up to £5. Equally the parent of any child over 2 can himself ask the authority to arrange for a medical examination. If the authority decides as a result of the medical examination and any reports from teachers or others that the child needs special educational treatment they must tell the parent of their decision and offer the treatment – either at a special school or otherwise. Though the upper limit of compulsory school age is 15 – and will be until 1970–71 – the compulsory school age for registered pupils at a special school is 16, and the pupil may remain there after that age if the parent and the authority so desire. Once a child is at a special school he may not be withdrawn without the consent of the authority, although in a dispute the parent may appeal to the Minister.

It is also the duty of a local education authority to ascertain what children in their area have such disability of mind as to make them unsuitable for education at school. Such children then become the responsibility of the local health authority. There is provision for appeal to the Minister against the decision that a child is unsuitable for education at school and the parent can ask the authority to review the decision every twelve months.

The table on page 88 shows the numbers of children in each of the different kinds of special school.

With the same provisos about shortage of teachers as are made for ordinary schools the maximum size of classes in

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1963

<i>Category of handicapped pupil catered for in the school</i>	<i>No. of schools</i>	<i>No. of pupils</i>	<i>No. of full-time teachers</i>
Blind	18	1,141	158
Partially sighted	23	1,415	138
Blind and partially sighted	2	231	27
Deaf	16	894	151
Partially hearing	4	476	56
Deaf and partially hearing	31	3,320	442
Deaf and partially sighted	1	169	19
Physically handicapped	78	5,237	462
Delicate	77	6,348	397
Delicate and physically handicapped	58	5,344*	342
Delicate and maladjusted	3	261	23
Maladjusted	56	2,010	165
Educationally subnormal	379	39,829	2,810
Epileptic	6	658	51
Speech defect	2	85	8
In hospital	100	4,091	467
Total	854	69,509	5,846

* Including 90 partially sighted, 11 partially hearing, 67 educationally subnormal, 71 maladjusted, 50 epileptic and 10 speech defect pupils.

special schools are as follows - 10 for deaf or partially deaf pupils or pupils suffering from speech defects; 15 for blind, partially sighted, or maladjusted pupils; 20 for a class of educationally subnormal, epileptic, or physically handicapped pupils; 30 for delicate pupils. By these standards 362 out of 4,270 classes for handicapped pupils were oversized in 1963.

Great advances have been made in the treatment of handi-

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capped pupils despite the fact that there is a great deal still to be done in bringing existing schools up to modern standards. There are probably now very nearly enough places in special schools for children with the various kinds of physical handicaps. Children on waiting lists are there normally for only a short time, until they can be suitably placed. Provision over the country as a whole is, however, uneven and it is perfectly possible that particular areas might be short of places for particular groups of children.

There are certainly not enough places for maladjusted children, and the provision for the educationally subnormal and for children unsuitable for education in school is a positive scandal. In the first place, classes in ordinary schools are far too large for individual treatment to be given in them to educationally subnormal children. There are very few teachers in ordinary schools who have been specially trained for this job. This means that the schools put forward for transfer to special (E.S.N.) schools children who should ideally remain with them. Such children are often more able than those for whom the special schools are designed. If they do not get into special (E.S.N.) schools, they are simply returned to the ordinary schools which have already shown that they cannot handle them. If they *are* accepted they keep out other children who should be there. Probably an eighth of the children in these schools are unsuitable in this way, but there are nowhere near enough schools anyway. The Department of Education has estimated that places in them are needed for 1·2 per cent of the school population. Over the country as a whole there are places for barely half this proportion. Only one or two authorities come anywhere near offering the required number of places. Even when the 1963 building programme is complete at least 10,000 more places will still be needed. In addition, at least 10,000 teachers specially trained to help the E.S.N. child are needed for ordinary schools. At present those being trained barely replace those who leave.

If a child is ascertained as being unsuitable for education at school, it is the health authority that is responsible for him. Training is offered in centres, known as occupation centres or

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day training centres. Ideally these should have something like a nursery school régime. There are probably enough full-time or part-time centres for about three-quarters of the children who need them, but relatively few of these were designed and built for the purpose, and most are in converted premises. Residential care is often essential for the severely mentally handicapped child. This is available only in the mental deficiency hospitals. Recent research into the needs of these children suggests that the hospitals are not suitable for them, though they take some 8,500 children at present. What is worse, most of them are overcrowded. Large wards of fifty are common. Buildings are frequently unsuitable and training facilities inadequate. Within these limits, conditions vary enormously. In some hospitals the children's needs are understood and every effort is made to meet them: in others, conditions are little removed from Bedlam.

DIRECT GRANT SCHOOLS

There is one group of schools which are poised somewhere between independence and the state. They are the direct grant schools. All but eight of them are grammar schools and five of the eight are technical schools. The direct grant grammar school has an independent governing body but is partly financed by a *per capita* grant direct from the Department of Education (hence the name). It is governed by the Direct Grant School Regulations, 1959. Under these the school is independent of the local education authority but it is required, in return for its direct grant, to make a certain number of places available for the use of the authority. The authority pays the fees of the children who are allocated to the places they take. Each school must offer each year free places equal in number to at least 25 per cent of the previous year's intake. These free places are for children who have spent up to two years at a state primary school and can be allotted by the governors themselves or put at the disposal of the local authority, who will probably choose pupils through the local 11+ procedure. The local authority may also take 'reserve places' for suitably qualified children

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whether they have attended a state primary school or not. Unless the governors specifically agree, the number of free and reserve places should not come to more than 50 per cent of the previous year's intake. The remaining places in the school are called 'residuary'. These are allocated by the governors and paid for by the parents. But it is not just a question of giving the places to children whose parents can pay. The governors must be satisfied that the children have the same minimum educational standard as those occupying the free and reserve places. On the other hand there is the possibility of remitting fees for pupils in residuary places according to a means test. It may be interesting to see in detail how the tuition fees for direct grant schools were paid in 1963.

PAYMENT OF TUITION FEES FOR PUPILS IN UPPER SCHOOLS, JANUARY 1963

	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>Free or reserved-place pupils</i>		
Fees paid by local education authorities	58,116	60·6
Fees paid by governing bodies	1,674	1·7
<i>Residuary-place pupils</i>		
Fees paid in full by parents	25,098	26·2
Fees paid in full from other sources	379	0·4
Fees wholly remitted by governing bodies	734	0·8
Fees partly remitted by governing bodies	9,928	10·3
<i>Total</i>	<u>95,929</u>	<u>100·0</u>

Altogether there are 179 direct-grant grammar schools in England and Wales: 95 for girls; 82 for boys; and 2 mixed (the girls' schools include the 22 schools of the Girls' Public Day School Trust and 59 of the boys' schools belong to the Headmasters' Conference). Between them they take in their upper

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schools some 50,000 boys and 46,000 girls (or 96,000 altogether). The schools tend to have between 300 and 800 pupils. The average size of class is 26·7, and the pupil-teacher ratio is 17·3. (In state grammar schools the ratio is 17·9 and in recognized independent schools it is 11·5.)

Many direct grant schools have their own junior departments, but most of these are separate independent schools and the allocation of places is not governed by the Department's regulations. Well under a quarter of the children entering the upper schools in the autumn of 1963 had attended the junior departments, while five eighths had been to state primary schools.

About 60 of the schools have boarding departments, but in 1963 these accounted for only 7,000 boys and 2,000 girls in the upper schools or under one tenth of the total. There is no remission of fees for boarders as there may be for day pupils in residuary places but the fees – between about £180 and £280 a year – are considerably lower than in most independent boarding schools. This makes them very attractive to people who want a 'public school' education but do not want to pay for it.

Direct grant schools can take the most gifted children and they consequently have a generally high academic reputation. Direct grant schools frequently top the list of schools whose pupils get awards at Oxford and Cambridge. A recent survey by the Advisory Centre for Education showed direct grant boys' schools doing proportionately better than state or other independent schools at G.C.E. O and A levels and for entry to universities.

INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS

REGISTRATION

Since 1957 all independent schools have been brought under the eyes of the Department of Education. On 30 September that year the Government introduced Part III of the Education Act, 1944. Proprietors of independent schools have had to apply for registration and the Department can refuse to register a school if the proprietor, staff, buildings, accommodation, or instruction given were not suitable. If anyone runs a school which is

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not registered he can be fined £20 for the first conviction or £50, three months' imprisonment, or both for a second or subsequent conviction. The independent schools have to tell the Minister about the number of pupils by sex and age-groups; the number of boarders, if any, by sex groups; and the names, ages, and qualifications of the head and staff. If the proprietor of the school changes or the school moves, the Department must be told at once. Before they are registered all schools are inspected by Her Majesty's Inspectors. After a school has been registered it is still liable to inspection. If it does not come up to standard the Minister can serve a notice of complaint specifying what he thinks is wrong and what he thinks should be done to put it right. If the school does not comply within a given time it can be struck off the register. The school can appeal to an independent schools' tribunal. Independent schools are not judged against the requirements laid down for state schools. Their staff and accommodation are considered on their merits. Since 1957 seventy-nine schools have had a notice of complaint served on them. Of these about half have subsequently satisfied the Department and the rest have either been closed or are still being considered.

RECOGNITION AS EFFICIENT

The only schools which were exempt from registration were those independent schools which were already recognized as efficient by the Ministry at the beginning of the autumn term 1957. Any independent school can apply to be recognized as efficient. Very roughly, a recognized school must be at least as well off for staff, accommodation, equipment, and so on as a comparable state school. For example, if the school claims to enter pupils for G.C.E. A level its staff must be properly qualified to teach to that level. The standards laid down for accommodation in state schools must be complied with. On the other hand, the Department is pretty broadminded and will tend to recognize a school as efficient if it is efficient according to its own announced standards. For example, a school may believe that no child should enter for any examination. Provided it says

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so the Department will not insist that it show the kind of success at O level that might be expected from a state school the same size.

At the end of 1963 there were 1,550 independent schools recognized as efficient compared with the 2,212 independent schools which were not recognized. Most independent schools which might qualify for recognition do apply for it. The exceptions are those few schools which either feel themselves above it or which are so experimental that they feel the Department's standards are irrelevant. Recognized schools are normally proud of their status and display it prominently in their advertisements.

NURSERY SCHOOLS

There is no need to add very much to the account of nursery schools on pages 72 and 75. There are only 9 independent nursery schools recognized as efficient, with 271 pupils and 28 full-time teachers. Oddly enough 26 of the children are boarders. These schools are virtually the same as state nursery schools. On the other hand there are 207 unrecognized nursery schools with over 5,500 pupils (8 of whom are boarders) and with 330 full-time and 191 part-time teachers. The pupil-teacher ratio allowing for the part-time teachers, is 13·7 (compared with 9·7 in recognized independent nursery schools). As well as being less well staffed than the recognized ones, the unrecognized schools are likely to be less well housed and equipped.

INDEPENDENT PRIMARY SCHOOLS

None of the types of independent schools quite corresponds to the state primary schools. This is chiefly because the age of transfer to an independent secondary school is as often as not 13 rather than 11. In its statistics the Department of Education lumps all independent schools which are not secondary schools together and calls them all 'primary', regardless of the fact that some of them take children up to the age of 14. The nearest thing to a state primary school among independent schools is the pre-preparatory school, which may take children up to the

age of 8 or even 11. But in the next stage, preparatory schools, the curriculum of fee-paying children differs radically from that of children in state schools.

The independent 'primary' schools are extremely varied. Over half of the 775 recognized ones have under 100 pupils, and 67 of them have under 50 pupils. This means that the day school with one or two classes is quite usual, retaining still the atmosphere of an old print. Even the bigger schools are likely to be accommodated in what used to be large private houses. Just under one-third of the recognized primary schools are mixed: well over half of them are for boys. Very nearly all the unrecognized schools are mixed.

There are very few girls' preparatory schools as such, but many independent girls' secondary schools have preparatory departments. There is an even greater number of schools which take boys and girls together up to, say, 11, and girls only from then on. The average number of pupils per full-time teacher in recognized primary schools is 12·5 and in unrecognized schools 15·0. Fees vary enormously: from as little as £30 a year for a day school to £500 a year for a boarding school.

Pre-preparatory Schools

As a broad generalization it is probably true that the pre-prep schools concentrate more on formal teaching than do state schools at this stage. Their pupil-teacher ratios are much more favourable, and in choosing them parents often argue that children learn to read, write and do sums earlier than at state schools. It is difficult to say decisively how much this is due to the schools and how much to the home background. The most obvious mark of distinction of the independent pre-prep school is its uniform. State primary school children may be encouraged into a distinctive cap but they can never be uniformly got up in the hat, blazer, skirt or trousers, sensible shoes, and satchel which is the outward mark of the pre-prep school child.

Preparatory Schools

It is in the preparatory schools that the curriculum for fee-paying children differs most radically from that of children in

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state schools. Even when the demands of the 11+ bear heavily on state primary schools the 8-year-olds will still moderate their concentration on reading, writing, and arithmetic with a great deal of drawing, acting, movement, music, nature study, elementary history, and geography. In the preparatory school, boys at any rate will be embarking on their preparation for Common Entrance as soon as they enter at 8. They, too, will have English, but their arithmetic will be part of a mathematics course which includes geometry and algebra. They will start Latin and French – and perhaps Greek. They will be aware that scripture, geography, and history are examination subjects, as they are not in state schools. The task of the boys' preparatory school is theoretically to prepare the boy for his public school. More practically it is to prepare him for the Common Entrance examination.

Girls' preparatory schools have a task somewhere between that of the boys' prep schools and the primary schools. Many of their girls will take a Common Entrance examination at 11 and at that age will not have to offer French or Latin. The 11-year-olds need only English, arithmetic, and general knowledge. Girls entering at 12 will add French and an optional paper in simple mathematics; 13-year-olds add Latin too.

In both boys' and girls' prep schools, however, there will be very much more formal teaching than in primary schools. There will also be more organized games. In fact a primary school child is likely to be up and about in many of his normal school lessons and will no doubt have physical education, say, four times a week. The prep school boy is likely to be much more sedentary in his normal lessons and his physical exercise will be in the form of organized team games like rugger and cricket. Another big difference of course is that very many boys' preparatory schools are boarding schools.

The headmaster of a boys' prep school is likely to be an individual proprietor who has bought or inherited the school. He will almost certainly have under 200 pupils – well over half have under 100 pupils. The pupil-teacher ratio in the schools is as a whole about 12·5, and in over a third of them it is under 10. The headmaster himself is more than likely to be a graduate,

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and half of his staff will have degrees too. Recently the prep schools have been attracting officers coming out of the army at middle age, giving them a short training course. The headmaster's wife, if he has one, will normally be in charge of the domestic arrangements, or there will be a matron. Headmasters of prep schools which are recognized as efficient are eligible for membership of the Incorporated Association of Preparatory Schools. This started in the last century to decide the size of a cricket ball and now has a genial annual conference at Oxford, where the heads hear lectures on anything from 'leadership' to the bulk buying of sheets and pillowcases.

INDEPENDENT SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Public Schools

In the autumn of 1961 the Minister of Education said in Parliament that he did not know what a public school was. In a sense the definition ought to be easy. A public school is either one of the nine recognized as such by the Clarendon Commission in 1861, or one which is run, not by a private proprietor, but by a governing body created by some statute, trust deed, or other scheme. In other words, the word 'public' is used either historically or to distinguish independent schools that might be held to be run in the public interest from those that are run primarily for financial profit to their owners. It is another historical accident that the state system has grown up and made the association of the word 'public' with independent schools rather inappropriate. Even so, confusion is not ended either by following the Clarendon Commission or by deciding that public schools are independent schools with governing bodies or trustees. Many progressive schools, for example, are controlled in this way; yet they neither call themselves public schools, nor are they thought of as public schools by most people. There are several associations to which independent schools belong and which are thought by some people to offer 'public-school status' to their members. So far as boys' schools are concerned the question seems to have been settled by Mr Butler when he was President of the Board of Education and set

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up the Fleming Committee to consider the relationship of public schools to the state system. He then defined public schools as 'schools which are in membership of the Governing Bodies Association or Headmasters' Conference'.

The Headmasters' Conference is the older and more famous of the two. It was started by the headmaster of Uppingham in 1869 because he thought that Uppingham and other endowed grammar schools were threatened by Parliament. What he had in mind was an annual conference to defend the schools' freedom. In the first year only twelve headmasters turned up but in the second year thirty-four attended, including those of the nine schools recognized by the Clarendon Commission as public schools because they took boys from all over the country: Eton, Winchester, Westminster, Charterhouse, Harrow, Rugby, Shrewsbury, St Paul's, and Merchant Taylors. Since that time the title 'public school' has rubbed off on to any schools whose headmaster is elected to the Headmasters' Conference. The Conference itself is a closed and self-perpetuating body. It limits itself to some 200 members and accepts boys' schools only. In electing the headmaster the committee takes into account the statute, trust deed, or other scheme under which the school is controlled, the measure of independence of the headmaster, the size of the school, the number of old boys at 'Oxford and Cambridge or other British universities', the size of the sixth form, and 'the quality and variety of the school's work'. Although in theory it is the headmaster who is elected to the Conference, it would be astonishing if a new headmaster of a school whose previous head was a member were not elected. Again by historical accident the Headmasters' Conference still includes the heads of schools which are not really independent at all - two aided and five controlled schools. There are also sixty-nine direct grant schools in all in membership. The headmaster of a state grammar school has recently been elected - as an honour!

The Governing Bodies Association was founded in 1941 and accepts as members the governing bodies of all schools taking boys - including, that is, co-educational schools. The association specifically states that it will admit independent schools, direct

grant schools and 'others as it may determine'. It includes about 130 independent schools, sixty-five direct grant schools and eight 'others'.

By analogy girls' public schools are generally accepted as being those independent schools whose headmistresses are members of the Association of Headmistresses or the Association of Governing Bodies of Girls' Public Schools. The trouble is that the Association of Headmistresses admits the heads of state schools to membership too. Nearly half of its members are in state schools, some of them in secondary modern and technical schools. The Association of Governing Bodies of Girls' Public Schools is limited to independent, direct grant schools, and 'others', like the Governing Bodies Association. It has at present about 140 independent schools and over sixty direct grant schools.

In the sense in which public schools have been discussed here, the best way of deciding whether a school is or is not a public school is simply to see whether it appears in the *Public and Preparatory Schools' Year Book* or the *Girls' School Year Book*. But unfortunately this isn't the end of the matter either. Many people would not recognize the aided schools which are members of the Headmasters' Conference as public schools in any obvious sense. Others exclude direct grant schools. Still more will not accept day schools as 'real' public schools. Others make invidious distinctions between 'major' and 'minor' public schools. Frankly, this is all so much nonsense: the distinctions have nothing whatever to do with the schools, their pupils, or with education, and are normally based on snobbery, ignorance, and prejudice.

The public schools differ from state schools chiefly in physical respects. Their entry is normally at 13, not at 11. Their staffing ratios are much more favourable (11·5 to 1 rather than 17·9 in state grammar schools and 20·1 in state secondary modern schools). Their buildings and playing fields are likely to be much more extensive and their laboratories bigger, more numerous, and better equipped. A good proportion of their pupils are boarders. The public schools also differ in that broadly they have a conscious aim which is variously expressed

as developing character, inculcating sound religious sense, and so on. But what is actually taught in formal lessons resembles pretty closely what is taught in state grammar schools. They are subject to the same pressures from the G.C.E. and from university entrance. Such differences as there are (in the emphasis placed on different subjects, for example, or in the degree of specialization) are between individual schools rather than between the public schools as a group and the rest. The day may be differently organized, but once in the classroom the public schoolboy gets much the same treatment (if a little less skilled in some cases) as his contemporary in the state grammar school.

Other Independent Schools

The independent secondary schools which are not normally described as public schools fall into two types: first, those schools which are run as businesses by individual proprietors and which, it is probably safe to say, do what they can to imitate the public schools; and second, those schools which really deserve to be called independent in that they are experimental or progressive or just different.

The progressive school movement is difficult to describe now. The schools differ very much among themselves. For example, one school still enjoys the full flavour of 8-year-olds who smoke and call the headmaster by his nickname, while another reads out its successes in the G.C.E. at a formal school speech day. The truth probably is that the 'progressive' movement of pre-war days has been entirely successful. Its influence on state schools has been profound and it would be difficult to argue that there is today much less music, drama, and art in traditional public schools than in progressive schools. Their obvious mark of distinction, in many cases, is that they are mixed boarding schools.

(iii) Summary

It may be as well to try to summarize this chapter: not forgetting the warning that generalizations can be dangerous.

SUMMARY

If your child goes through the state system, he will start (legally) at 5, compete for a place in a grammar school at 11, and emerge at some time after 15. He will go to school, normally, with children from your neighbourhood, though if he goes to a grammar school he may have to travel a bit daily and will almost certainly be with a higher proportion of middle-class children than otherwise. His classes will be large: over forty perhaps at the beginning, and over thirty later on. When he is young, his teachers will normally be well trained and competent; when he is older they may be neither, though in a grammar school they will normally be pretty well educated. In the infant school the atmosphere will be free and encouraging; in the junior school streaming will set in and the 11+ will make its influence felt. His secondary modern school may be anything from a dreary or lawless failure to a bright, imaginative, or academically rigorous triumph. (A grammar school would probably get his head down quite soon to the G.C.E. and would assume that he was just as likely to stay on to 18 as not.) The curriculum will be rather basic most of the time, though there will be a conscious effort to bring in physical education and the arts. He may never get the chance to do foreign languages, any more than elementary science, or mathematics other than arithmetic – unless he goes to grammar school. He will almost certainly go to a day school and thus will escape the most vigorous attempts to give his school life 'tone' or 'tradition' or a particular religious slant. He is likely to meet girls often enough to discover that they are human. (If your child is a girl you need only make the relevant adjustments to this paragraph.)

If your child goes through the independent system, he may well start quite young, at 3 perhaps. He may have to compete to get into a preparatory school at 8 and into a public school at 13. He is very unlikely to leave much before 17. He will go to school, probably, away from home, perhaps from the age of 8, but will be educated almost exclusively among children from the same social class as yourself. His classes will be consistently small. When he is young his teachers may be badly trained and not very well educated, when he is older they will probably be

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neither. His school life is likely to be pretty formal throughout. He will have the Common Entrance Examination in mind from the day he enters preparatory school, and the G.C.E. and university entrance throughout public school. If he is in a boarding school he may be physically pretty uncomfortable. He will undergo compulsory team games. He will start foreign languages and mathematics at 8 or so, but will get only the most elementary science before 13. After that he might get a lot of it or something rather shoddy. He will be made very aware of 'the school', its 'tone' and 'tradition', and he may be told so frequently that he is a Christian as to get himself confirmed. He may find girls embarrassing. (If your child is a girl, this paragraph needs major adjustments: girls' schools vary more than boys' – and your daughter may go to one which tries to be a boys' public school or one which closely resembles a reasonable state day school.)

Some parents are beginning to try to get the best of both worlds. A typical plan of this kind might be: nursery school to 5, primary school to 8, preparatory school to 11+, grammar school to G.C.E. O level, and public school for the assault on university entrance. But a successful plan of this kind demands familiarity with examinations, the subject of the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

Examinations

11+

Probably the most famous aspect of English education is the 11+ examination. Most children go through it – and so, in varying degrees of confidence, hope, and dread, do their parents. As well as being famous, the 11+ is also controversial. One of the political parties, the Labour Party, is pledged to abolish it. It is one of the things that flabbergasts, amuses, or horrifies visitors from abroad. But what makes it famous, and what provokes the dislike of the Labour Party (and many educationists) and the reactions of foreign visitors, is not the examination itself but the division of secondary education into various types of schools and the selection of children for them at the age of 11. This is more fully covered on pages 79–86. It is necessary to repeat here only that the purpose of the examination is to fit the children of an area into the various secondary schools that are available there. Each local education authority devises its own scheme of selection: there is no national examination and, despite what many people still seem to think, there is no mention of 11+ in the 1944 Act. It may be added that probably most children of the relevant age (about 10½) enjoy doing the tests set. But as one headmistress has added, ‘If only their futures did not depend on it’.

What of the examination itself? What does it consist of? As each local education authority runs its own, a general answer is difficult, though not impossible. Similar methods are used by most authorities: they differ in the importance they attach to particular methods and in the combination of methods they use. Methods include tests, teachers’ assessments, a ‘quota’ system, and interviews (of children and sometimes their parents). The tests may include verbal reasoning or intelligence

EXAMINATIONS

tests, tests in English and arithmetic, English essays, non-verbal tests, mixed verbal and non-verbal tests, special and other tests. The tests, of almost every sort, may be standardized or unstandardized. Of all the methods, the tests are the ones that bewilder parents the most, though their 'results' are the least complicated and ambiguous of the lot. If you must select children, the standardized tests are the fairest and most dependable way of doing it.

THE TESTS

Many of the standardized tests used by local authorities are supplied by either the National Foundation for Educational Research in London or by Moray House College of Education at Edinburgh. The tests are secret and actual examples of them may not be given. The following will give an idea of the kind of tests used in English, arithmetic, and verbal reasoning. The children are given half- or three-quarters of an hour for each paper, which may contain 50 or 100 short questions.

English

1-3 One word in each sentence below is left unfinished. Write this word in full in the bracket at the side, taking care to spell it carefully.

1. A person who can't hear is d———. (.....)
2. Windsor C——— is the home of the Queen (.....)
3. Mary took her raincoat in c——— it rained (.....)

4-9 In each line below a sentence has been started for you. Write some more words to finish each sentence. The first one has been done for you.

4. Although he disliked *running*, he entered every race.
5. Because of
6. Since hearing from
7. Crying with
8. To the astonishment of
9. After waiting for more than

* * *

ELEVEN PLUS

10-15 Put the necessary punctuation marks in the sentence below. Mark the words which should begin with capital letters like this - friday

In each case the marks will be one of these , . " " ?

Where is john that naughty boy demanded the teacher

16-17 Change these sentences to the past, by writing ONE word in each empty space.

16. Today I sing in my bath because I feel happy

Yesterday I in my bath because I happy.

17. Later on I shall go out and spend my pocket money.

Earlier today I out and my pocket money.

18-25 Read through this passage and answer the questions below.

A year ago, a large red-faced farmer went to Shrewsbury market on his old grey mare. Behind him rode his comely daughter. As they approached a crossroads a large black raven who had concealed himself in the foliage of a tree suddenly cried 'Croak!' The aged mare was so terrified that she fell down and broke her leg, and the farmer was thrown to the ground and struck his head on a stone. The raven flew off, quite content with the trouble he had caused.

In Numbers 18 to 25 underline the one correct answer in brackets.

18. This story is about

(Shrewsbury/a wicked raven/a journey/birds/mares).

19. The farmer was

(rich/old/big/frightened/lost).

20. The raven was

(invisible/mischiefous/noisy/helpful/walking).

21. The raven hid

(behind a bush/by the roadside/all the time/among the leaves of a tree/with a friend).

22. All this happened

(today/yesterday/some years ago/twelve months ago/never).

23. Write one word from the passage which means 'beautiful'.

24. Write one word from the passage which means 'very frightened'.

25. Write one word from the passage which means 'satisfied'.

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Arithmetic

1. Add	2. Subtract	3. Multiply
28	£ s d	Yds ft ins
15	15 0 5	74 3 6
36	8 3 6	5
—	—	—

4. Divide

Stones lbs ozs

9) 29 9 2

5. Take 19 from 37 and divide the answer by 6.

6. Write in figures two thousand and twelve.

7. If oranges are 3 for 10d., how many oranges shall I get for 3s. 4d.?

8. Our family uses 16 pints of milk a week. How many *gallons* do we use in a year?

9. In which of the following numbers does 7 represent the largest quantity? 675 487 1578 710

10. If there are 1760 yds to a mile, how many *feet* are there in a quarter of a mile?

Verbal Reasoning

1. Underline the right answer in the brackets.

In is to out as up is to (top/bottom/down/through/hole)

2. Underline the TWO words which mean something different from the rest.

daisy/weed/chrysanthemum/flower/tulip/daffodil

3. Write ONE letter in the brackets to finish the first word and start the last.

REN(..)EA

4. Fill in the missing number below.

36, 27, (..), 9.

5. If 29384791 means STRENGTH, what does 184 mean?

6. Underline the TWO words in the brackets which ALWAYS go with the word outside:

TREE (park/leaves/birds/bushes/branches)

7. Underline the TWO words which must change places to make this sentence sensible:

The cows milks the farmer

ELEVEN PLUS

8. Write TWO letters in the brackets to continue the series:
A Z Y A X W A V U (..) (..)
9. Write a word in the empty brackets so that the three things on the right go together like the three things on the left:
girl (two) feet :: horse (.....) hooves
10. Underline TWO words, one from each bracket, that mean most nearly the OPPOSITE of each other
(leave, run, start) (walk, finish, go)

WHO USES WHAT

Which authorities use what methods and in what combinations is an absurdly guarded secret. The National Foundation for Educational Research knows but has promised not to tell. This is because local education authorities in general say that publishing their procedures in a way in which they could be compared would re-awaken anxieties and demands among parents which would otherwise die away. Some authorities say that their procedure is far too complicated to be stated briefly (one chief education officer has said that he would need at least 2,000 words to explain his) and others hint that the really important decisions cannot be explained in actual words. Some authorities make no effort whatever to explain to parents what is going to be done to their children, though they claim to be prepared to explain if anyone calls round at the education office. The best that can be done for the moment therefore is to say what the position is generally. The fullest account is in *Admission to Grammar Schools* by A. Yates and D. A. Pidgeon.

Very nearly all authorities use verbal intelligence, or verbal reasoning tests. The exceptions are mostly Welsh, and they have language difficulties. Equally, very nearly all authorities use tests of attainment in English and arithmetic, but some authorities seem to be abandoning them in favour of relying on the assessments of primary school teachers in these subjects. Almost no authorities use unstandardized tests alone, but there are still a number which use a combination of standardized and unstandardized tests. One hears that the use of English essays is

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declining again after a brief moment of popularity. There has never been any agreement about how essays can best be marked. There are even authorities which do not mark essays at all, and quite a lot of them mark only some of the essays. Most authorities give the children a choice of topics for the essay and most also use a pool of examiners in marking. Primary school teachers' assessments are used for all children by about three-quarters of the authorities, and this method seems to be getting more popular. The assessments may be expressed as orders of merit or as grades – or both. Most authorities ask the teachers for overall assessments and about half of them ask the teachers to take personal qualities into account. Some ask for separate assessments of attainment, others ask the teachers to take the home background into account and a few tell the teachers to make allowances for age.

Three-quarters of the authorities have a 'border zone' procedure for those children who are difficult to classify first time round. Some give extra tests and a few refer the child to a psychologist. Many consult primary school record cards and some use an interview. The use of extra tests and interviews appears to be declining but about a quarter of the authorities interview teachers about the children and a few interview parents. The interviews may be conducted by the primary school heads, secondary teachers, psychologists, administrators, inspectors, or members of the education committee, or by various combinations of these. More and more authorities treat boys and girls separately.

There is little evidence to indicate that the 11+ examination is being abolished or radically changed.

COMMON ENTRANCE

The Common Examination for Entrance to Public Schools, normally known as Common Entrance, is the qualifying examination for entry to most of the schools of the Headmasters' Conference and to many independent boys' schools outside it. Normally every boy is examined in English, scripture, history, geography, Latin, French, and maths. Roman Catholic

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schools do not ask for the Common Entrance scripture paper and one or two schools do not require Latin. In Latin, French, and maths there are additional papers known as 'B' papers. These are more difficult and are used by the individual public schools for placing a boy in the appropriate class or set when he gets there. None of the 'B' papers is compulsory but boys are encouraged to try at least one of them, usually the French paper. A boy may also be examined in Greek or Latin verse. The papers are forty-five minutes or an hour long and the candidates are warned that 'throughout the examination importance will be attached to correct English, tidiness, spelling, punctuation, and handwriting'.

The papers are set by examiners who are usually assistant masters at public schools. They are appointed by the Board of Managers of the examination, which is made up of three representatives of the Headmasters' Conference and three of the Incorporated Association of Preparatory Schools. The Board finally assesses the papers. Neither the Board nor the examiners mark the answers. The marking is done by the school at which a candidate is registered. Scholarships are not awarded on the results of Common Entrance but candidates for them are examined quite separately. The papers are set and marked by the school offering the scholarships.

There are three sittings of Common Entrance every year – in February, June and November. In 1963 over 6,000 sat in June, 2,500 in February, and 2,500 in November. A boy who fails the examination may take it again if he hasn't reached the age limit of 14 and if permission is given by the headmaster of the school for which he is sitting. Boys are not normally encouraged to make a second attempt unless there are special reasons for the first failure.

A description of the examination, however, is by no means a discussion of the whole process of entry to public schools. For some of them competition is so intense that parents have to think far ahead. Leaving aside those schools at which a boy has to be registered before he is one year old, there are many other places where a choice has to be made before a boy's interests are formed or his capacities guessed at. Parents tend to put their

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sons' names down for two or three schools of varying outlook and academic standard. Clearly an early choice of preparatory school must be made, especially if parents want a day school.

The boy starts at his prep school when he is 8. When he is 10 or 11 his headmaster will feel able to assess his chances and guide his parents in a final choice of school. At the same time public schools draw up their definite lists and ask the preparatory schools to confirm that the boys are likely to be up to their standard in two years' time. Not all parents narrow their choice to one at this stage. Some keep two schools in mind. Sometimes the schools may cooperate and the boy's papers can be passed to the second if he fails at the first.

The schools do not publish their pass marks and they vary from below 50 to above 60 per cent. Since each school does its own marking, one school's 50 per cent may not be at all the same as another's. If a school has offered a definite place, it may exert itself to make a boy's papers reach the required standard. Some schools turn away only one or two boys a year. Others have a failure rate of 10 per cent or more. After the sitting in June 1963, the assistant secretary of the Incorporated Association of Preparatory Schools had 100 urgent pleas for help in placing rejected boys (there were over 6,000 candidates at that sitting). The I.A.P.S. has built up an unofficial clearing house of places and many of the rejected get in quite quickly elsewhere. Not all the boys who want to go to H.M.C. schools eventually do so, but pretty well all of them get into these or other independent schools.

Although the over-all failure rate in Common Entrance itself is clearly not high, the number of boys rejected by the public schools is higher than this suggests, because of the tacit selection process made earlier when the boys are only 11. But even when this is allowed for there is a great difference between the selection examinations for independent and for state schools. Only a quarter of an age group is admitted to state grammar schools. Between 80 and 90 per cent at the very least of those seeking admission are accepted by public schools. Even allowing for enormous differences of homes and backgrounds it is clear that the public schools take a wider range of ability than state

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grammar schools. The most reliable guess suggests that at least a fifth of the boys in public schools are of a lower I.Q. than would normally be needed to get into a state grammar school.

There have often been tentative proposals for making it possible for more and different children to go to public schools. The difference between the age at which pupils take Common Entrance and that at which they take the 11+ is one obvious handicap. Another is that Common Entrance demands subjects like scripture, Latin, and French, which a boy in a state school is unlikely to have spent enough time on – certainly in the primary school and perhaps even in two years at a grammar school – to feel at home with Common Entrance papers.

THE QUESTIONS

Here are some examples of questions set in Common Entrance papers.* One question has been taken at random from each of the papers set at one examination.

Scripture: Name the persons to whom *each* of the following quotations refers.

- (a) 'I will make of thee a great nation.'
- (b) 'She had compassion on him and said: "This is one of the Hebrews' children".'
- (c) 'Speak Lord; for thy servant heareth.'
- (d) 'The Lord hath delivered me out of the paw of the lion and out of the paw of the bear, and he will deliver me out of the hand of this Philistine.'

Write briefly about *one* of the persons you have mentioned above.

History: Answer one of the following as fully as time permits:

- (a) Why did Henry II quarrel with Becket?
- (b) Tell the story of either Mary, Queen of Scots, or Oliver Cromwell.
- (c) Explain why and how Parliament was reformed in 1832.
- (d) Describe what you have learned about History from any one old building you have visited.

* Quoted by kind permission of the Board of Management.

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Arithmetic A: The average age of a class of twelve boys is 12 yrs 2 months. A boy whose age is exactly 14 yrs leaves the class. What is the average age of the remainder?

Algebra A: (i) If 1 ton of coal costs £ x , express the cost of x cwt in shillings in its simplest form.

(ii) If x lb. $4y$ oz. = $8a$ oz., find an equation connecting x , y , and a , and simplify it as much as possible.

Latin A: Translate into Latin:

- (a) Do you not want to do the same work, boys?
- (b) I ordered my brother to play with me.
- (c) The enemy, whose camp we have seen, are coming through the wood.
- (d) He says that the sun goes round the earth.
- (e) On account of the showers, that river is becoming deeper.

English: Either, describe the scene in a hospital train, full of wounded soldiers.

Or, describe a day in the life of a policeman.

Or, imagine that you are a driver in the Monte Carlo Rally. Describe your experiences.

French A: Écrivez: Au pluriel: Mon fils demande à son cousin s'il a vu le nouveau film.

Au féminin: Celui-ci est mon fils ainé; le petit garçon gros est mon neveu.

Au futur: Je les connais. Qui sont-ils? Vous voulez savoir? Je vous le dis.

Au parfait: Ils prennent leur temps. Ils ne se dépêchent pas; ils ne courent pas; ils bavardent.

Remplacez les noms par les pronoms convenables:

Regardez les lycéens dans l'image.

Il a vu le film au cinéma.

Geometry A: Make a rough sketch of a triangle ABC which has a right angle at B , an angle of 60° at A and 30° at C . On the opposite side of BC sketch roughly another triangle DBC which is congruent to ABC , so that the whole figure is symmetrical about BC .

Why is ABD a straight line?

What can you say about the triangle ACD ?

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Geography: Either, Select one of the following industries : *Chemical, Pottery or Iron and Steel* and write an account of it under the headings : *Locality, Raw Materials, Processes and Chief Towns.*

Or Explain with examples what you understand by three of the following : Mixed Farming, Rotation of Crops, Market Gardening, The Fens, Dairying.

French B: Écrivez une lettre à un ami décrivant quelque chose qui est arrivé à votre école. (Vous devrez écrire à peu près 40 mots, mais l'adresse ne compte pas.)

General Mathematics B: (i) A man borrows £2,400 from a bank to buy a house. The interest he has to pay is $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per annum at first; later the rate is increased to 5 per cent. How much more does he have to pay when the rate of interest goes up?

(ii) What is the rate of interest when a man pays £8 5s a year on a loan of £150?

Latin B: Translate into Latin :

- (a) Although he laughed more often, he was not wiser than they.
- (b) He was so ill that he suffered great pain.
- (c) Branches were cut and fixed round the camp.
- (d) *The Pardoner's Tale*

Once three wicked men, having seen their companion suddenly destroyed by Death, desired to find and punish the enemy. When they asked an old man where Death could be found, he shewed them a tree, under which much gold had been placed on the ground. Each of the three was afraid that he would lose his share. The youngest, therefore, was sent to buy wine, and when he brought it the others killed him. But as the wine was mixed with poison, they also died.

Branch = ramus, to punish = punire, to lose = amittere,
poison = venenum.

Greek: Put into Greek :

- (a) The brother of the sailor is not brave.
- (b) We ordered all the prisoners to leave the ships which the allies wished to send.
- (c) He said that the men in the island would fight so well that we should not be able to capture it.

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Latin Verse: Put into Latin Elegiacs:

Sohrab and Rustum

The thing remains unknown to the father, when a baby is born:

Hereafter each-of-the-two leads opposing bands.

When the father was striving against the son, one against one,

He, unknowing, himself kills his-own offspring.

For the boy recognized suddenly, and withdrew (his) shield,

And the spear pierces the exposed side at-the-same-time.

Words to be Used

Line 1. Maneo, ignōtus, pater (patris), cum (+ indic.), infans, nascor (3).

„ 2. Posthac, ūterque, duco, oppositus, manus.

„ 3. Cum (+ subjunc.), contendō (3), in, natus.

„ 4. Ille, nescius, nēco (1), prōles (prolis 3.f.).

„ 5. Agnosco (agnovi), subito, -que, vētrāno (vetraxyi), scūtum.

„ 6. -que, hasta, perfōro (1), nudatus, lātus (3.n.), simul.

GENERAL CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION

The general certificate of education – the G.C.E. – is the most important external examination in secondary schools. An external examination is one which is set and marked by people outside the school or education office, and the teachers see the papers for the first time when they hand them out to their pupils. The universities took the initiative in founding and running the first examining boards over a hundred years ago, and they are still responsible for running seven of the nine examining boards which now exist. These boards are: Associated Examining Board for the General Certificate of Education, University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, Northern University Joint Matriculation Board (the Universities of Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Sheffield, and Birmingham), University of London School Examinations Council, Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board, Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations, Southern Universities' Joint Board for School Examinations (Universities of Bristol, Exeter, Reading, and Southampton), Durham University Matriculation and School Examination Board, Welsh Joint Education Committee. (All but the first and last of these are university boards.)

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Each board makes its own syllabuses, sets its own question papers, and publishes lists of results. It is possible, therefore, that the types of papers set may vary from one board to another and, perhaps more important, that standards may differ. On the other hand the certificates issued by all the boards are recognized by universities and professional bodies and the boards constantly try to see that their examinations are comparable. For example, the chief examiners of all the boards see the syllabuses and actual scripts from a past examination of the other boards and meet to discuss them.

Over-all supervision of the examination system is the responsibility of the Secondary Schools Examinations Council, which is appointed by the Secretary of State. Recommendations of this body can lead to changes. For example a new examination, the Certificate of Secondary Education for pupils of G.C.E. standard and below, is at present being worked out. In 1951 the G.C.E. itself replaced the previous School Certificate and Higher School Certificate examinations. This change was more than one of name. It introduced the most distinctive feature of the G.C.E. The old School Certificate demanded passes in specified groups of subjects. Without the right number and combination a pupil did not get a certificate. In the G.C.E. a pupil gets a certificate recording whatever successes he has, whether there are nine of these or only one.

The examination is held at two levels, the Ordinary (O) and Advanced (A). Pupils normally take O level at the end of their fifth year in a secondary school, that is at about the age of 16. They take A level after two years in a sixth form, that is about the age of 18. In some schools pupils take their O level in stages or even ignore O level altogether in those subjects that they are going on to take at A level. Candidates who fail a subject at A level may, if their marks are good enough, be awarded an O level pass in that subject. Candidates sitting A level in a subject may attempt 'special' papers in that subject (except in craft and practical subjects). Passes are not awarded in 'special' papers but marks gained in them are taken into account by local authorities in awarding scholarships and by universities and other institutions of higher education in offering places.

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History: (There is a choice of periods in English, European or some other regional history.)

6. What problems had Henry IV to solve on his accession and how successful was he in solving them?
39. Describe the main features of the history of the Labour Party between the two world wars.

Mathematics: Arithmetic: (a) The average age of a class of twenty-two boys is 14 years 4 months. If the class is joined by two boys whose ages are 15 years 1 month and 15 years 7 months, find the new average age of the class.

(b) A rectangular picture, 16 in. by 12 in., is surrounded by a wooden frame $\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide. Find the area of the frame.

Mathematics: Algebra: (a) A firm employs x men and y boys. The men are paid $\text{£}p$ each per week and the boys $\text{£}q$ each per week. Find the average payment per person per week.

(b) If v varies inversely as t and $v = 12$ when $t = 6$, find the value of t when $v = 18$.

Mathematics: Geometry: (a) A rhombus $ABCD$ and an equilateral triangle ABE are drawn on opposite sides of AB . If the angle $BAD = 144^\circ$, calculate the sizes of the angles DAE , AED and EBD .

(b) In a pentagon $PQRST$, angle $TPQ = \text{angle } PQR = 90^\circ$, angle $RST = 152^\circ$ and angle $STP = \text{angle } SRQ$. Calculate the size of the angle SRQ .

French: Translate into French:

The old farmer opened the letter with trembling fingers. This is what he read: 'I have nearly finished my military service. I shall leave my regiment soon and I shall arrive in Marseilles at the beginning of September. I shall be very pleased to see you again.
ANDRÉ.'

Toussaint, the farmer, said to himself, 'He is going to come home at last. He left us nearly two years ago. We shall be very pleased to see our son again.'

On the 7th of September, the farmer was up very early. He dressed quickly and set off for the station. He arrived there a little before 8 a.m. Toussaint had an impatient nature and he kept looking at his watch. At last the sound of a train could be heard. 'I wonder if he has changed very much,' said the old countryman to himself. The train came into the station. Toussaint heard a familiar voice. He

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looked at the compartment in front of him and there stood André, whom he had not seen for such a long time.

Physics: According to the simple kinetic theory all matter consists of molecules. In terms of this theory, write short notes on

- (a) the fundamental differences between liquids and solids,
- (b) latent heat of evaporation of a liquid,
- (c) expansion,
- (d) the increase of pressure when a gas is heated at constant volume,
- (e) the Absolute Zero of temperature,
- (f) the difference between heat and temperature.

Chemistry: Describe the manufacture and purification of coal gas.

Name the principal by-products of this process and give one important use of each.

Human Biology: Draw a labelled diagram of the female human reproductive system and indicate on it the usual position in which (a) semen is deposited, (b) fertilization takes place, (c) an ovum is formed, and (d) the embryo is housed.

What determines the sex of an embryo?

A Level

English Essay: You are advised to spend about one and a half hours on this question and to revise your essay carefully. Choose one of the following subjects:

- (a) Tricks of the trade.
- (b) The English Channel: a tunnel, a bridge, or neither?
- (c) The agriculture of the country in which you live – its prospects and problems.
- (d) Tradition and experiment in architecture or in any other fine art.
- (e) Rebels.
- (f) 'A country's reading public gets the Press it deserves.' Give two opposing points of view in a debate on this motion.
- (g) Patent medicines.
- (h) 'One crowded hour of glorious life.'

Geography: Discuss the geographical aspects of one of the following topics:

- (a) Benelux,
- (b) Norden,

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- (c) The European Coal and Steel Community,
- (d) The Neutrality of Switzerland.

History : [again there are different periods which can be chosen.] Why was British public opinion sympathetic to the policies of Franklin D. Roosevelt between 1933 and 1939?

Mathematics : (a) Differentiate $\frac{xe^{x^2}}{(1-x)x}$ with respect to x .

(b) If $y = a \cos(\log x) + b \sin(\log x)$, show that

$$x^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0.$$

Physics : Describe with a diagram and with the relevant theory a terrestrial method for determining the velocity of light.

Give reasons why it is important in science to know accurately the velocity of light.

UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE

The importance of the G.C.E. lies in the fact that success in it at some level is recognized as a minimum qualification for entry to universities, colleges, and professional bodies. To get into a university you have to pass or be exempted from a matriculation examination. Most universities do not have a matriculation examination of their own but rely entirely on the results of the G.C.E. – Oxford and Cambridge recognize the G.C.E. as giving exemption from matriculation. In general, the universities' minimum entrance requirements are five or six O levels and two A levels. Satisfying the minimum entrance requirements, however, does not carry with it the right of entry to any particular university : it is only a general prerequisite. Competition for university places means that individual universities in practice have plenty of people with more than the minimum requirements to choose from. Particular faculties or departments may insist on a certain standard in their own or other subjects. At Oxford and Cambridge, the prospective student must apply to a particular college and pass the entrance examination of that college. The requirements are listed in *A Compendium of University Entrance Requirements*, published by the Committee of Vice-Chancellors, 36 Gordon Square, London w.c.1.

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If a sixth-former wants to go to Oxford or Cambridge he should apply to the college of his choice in the Autumn term before he wants to go up. The university term starts in October, so this means applying a year ahead. He can expect to take the college entrance examination in December or January and get the result soon after. He can leave it a bit, though not much, later for applying to other universities. For those in England and Wales (except the medical and dental schools of London University) he should apply through the Universities Central Council on Admissions, 29 Tavistock Square London, WC1. Head teachers have all the details. Universities will normally either reject a candidate or accept him subject to a specified performance in the forthcoming A level, and will make their final decision about the middle of August.

Changes designed to make the A level examination a more suitable yardstick for selecting students for universities came into force in the summer of 1963. There is now a uniform system of grading and presentation of the results for all the examining bodies. There are five main grades: grade A for the top 10 per cent, grade B for the next 15 per cent, and grades C, D, and E to be divided among the further 45 per cent. (The rest fail!) In addition the special or S papers are made up of more searching questions designed to test intellectual grasp and capacity to think about the subject. Only candidates getting A, B, or C grades on their basic papers have any S paper they offer taken into account.

CHAPTER SIX

Choice – and Fee-paying

PARENTAL CHOICE IN THE STATE SYSTEM

Parents are frequently confused about their right to choose one state school rather than another. There is a still popular belief that head teachers have the power to admit or to reject. There is also a growing belief that the 1944 Act gives parents an unqualified right to choose the school to which their child should go. Both of these beliefs are wrong.

Let us see first what the 1944 Act actually says. The relevant section is Section 76.

76. Pupils to be educated in accordance with wishes of parents

In the exercise and performance of all powers and duties conferred and imposed on them by this Act the Ministry and local education authorities shall have regard to the principle that, so far as is compatible with the provision of efficient instruction and training and the avoidance of unreasonable public expenditure, pupils are to be educated in accordance with the wishes of their parents.

Let us see now what Section 76 *does not* say. It does not say that pupils must be educated in accordance with the wishes of their parents. Neither does it say that the local authority must follow the principle that they should be so educated. What it does is to lay down a general principle to which the local authority must have regard. The authority can, of course, have regard to other things as well and can also make exceptions to the general principle if it wants to. However, if a local authority were to direct a child to attend a particular school it would be almost impossible to prove that the authority had not at some point ‘had regard’ to the general principle.

There are also two hefty qualifications in Section 76. They are ‘so far as is compatible with the provision of efficient instruction and training and the avoidance of unreasonable public

expenditure'. In practice this means, for example, that if your son is not selected for a grammar school place you have no right under Section 76 to demand one – though you can always try to produce evidence that the selection was mistaken. Equally if your daughter is 5 you cannot insist that she goes to a near-by school for the over-7s even if the nearest school for 5-year-olds is a mile away. The qualification that unreasonable public expenditure must be avoided means, for example, that you cannot force your local authority to allow your son to go to an expensive boarding school nor insist that your daughter goes to your wife's old school which happens to be miles away in another county.

Parents might well wonder if they have any right of choice left. The answer is that they have, and the Department of Education has issued a *Manual of Guidance* on the subject. The manual says that it simply sets out 'some of the relevant considerations which may need to be balanced against each other before a decision is reached'. In practice, however, these 'considerations' have come to be accepted as reasonable grounds for choosing one school rather than another. They are as follows:

1. Religion

Denominational feelings are one of the commonest and strongest reasons for choosing an alternative school and most authorities recognize this. It is not generally known, however, that a parent need not show that he belongs to any specific religious denomination. A man may be an ardent Methodist but if he wants his child brought up as a Roman Catholic he cannot be told he has no right to select a Roman Catholic school. Naturally a parent's own religious practice will be taken into account in judging the seriousness of his request. For example, the ardent Methodist might want his daughter to go to a convent school for other than religious reasons, say the indefinable social tone it imparts.

2. Languages

In Wales some parents are very anxious that their children

should be taught in one language rather than another. The Department recognizes that it would be reasonable for authorities to organize schools so that they can meet a demand for instruction in either English or Welsh and that where a parent can choose it is reasonable for him to do so.

3. Convenience

Another common reason for choosing an alternative school is the presence of traffic dangers. Parents can also urge that their child should go to the same school as an elder brother or sister so that he might be escorted safely. Normally a parent will want to choose a near-by school rather than one farther away.

4. Medical

If it could be shown to be desirable that a child should attend one school rather than another on medical grounds, the parents' wish would almost certainly be upheld. Much can be done with a doctor's certificate.

5. Special facilities

Where both parents go out to work the Department says it would be reasonable for their children to attend schools where they can have a midday meal if this were practicable.

6. Family associations

The Department is sympathetic to old boy and old girl feelings.

7. Co-education

The desire to choose either a single-sex school or a co-educational school is normally recognized as reasonable.

8. Advanced work

In a small number of cases a parent might choose one grammar school rather than another on the ground that the first provides a particular type of advanced work and the second does not.

These are the grounds on which parents may seek to choose one school rather than another. The main reason why a local authority might refuse a parent's request is that they have some

'zoning' plan for local schools. In many areas the provision of efficient instruction involves allocating 'catchment areas' to each school so as to avoid overcrowding in some and empty classrooms in others. The *Manual of Guidance* gives the authorities their cue when it says that it would not be compatible with the provision of efficient instruction and training if the school of the parent's choice (or the class which the child would enter) were full. The manual recognizes that it may be necessary under a zoning scheme for some children to attend a school other than that nearest to their homes. But the Minister does assume that local authorities will zone only where necessary, will stop doing so when the need for it is past, and will take traffic dangers, denominational preferences, and exceptional cases into account. When a zoning scheme is first introduced children should normally be allowed to stay in the schools to which they have previously been going and in any case the authorities should publicize their intentions by circular letters to parents, parents' meetings, announcements in the papers, and so on.

These, then, are the limits and possibilities of parental choice. What happens if a parent chooses a school and the school or the local authority will not agree? Can a parent insist on his right of choice and make it effective? Happily, the need to appeal and insist seldom arises. Most local education authorities are willing within reasonable limits to meet parents' wishes. But occasionally a parent is worried or annoyed because what seem to him quite legitimate reasons for preferring one school to another are brushed aside, and the authority in a dictatorial and bureaucratic manner arbitrarily reject his choice and insist that the child attends a particular school. The first thing he can do is to make quite certain he has exhausted all the normal processes of local government. He should seek a personal interview with the education officer, invoking the help of his local councillor if necessary. He should also appeal to the education committee. If this fails, his only recourse is a complicated procedure which can be unpleasant and harmful to his child. The procedure is set out here, but no one would recommend parents to follow it unless they are in dire extremities.

The parent's first step is to appeal to the Secretary of State. He can do this directly or through his local Member of Parliament. There is no particular advantage in going through an M.P. except that M.P.s are much more practised than parents in writing to Ministers. There is no backstairs pressure an M.P. can bring to bear. The parent's appeal can be on two grounds. He can complain under Section 68 of the 1944 Act that the authority are acting unreasonably, and under Section 99 that the authority are failing in their duty under Section 76. As already explained, Section 76 is hedged about with qualifications and it is impossible to show that the authority have not 'had regard to' the parent's wishes even if they reject them. More crucial perhaps is the fact that the Minister has hitherto normally refused to act against an authority under Section 68; but there are signs of a change on the way.

To explain what a parent can do if he feels the authority are acting unreasonably and has failed to convince the Minister of this we shall have to start with the duties which the 1944 Act lays on the parents and on the authorities. The final responsibility for seeing that the child receives education falls clearly upon the parent. In education law in this country it is the duty of the parent of every child of compulsory school age to cause him to receive full-time education suitable to his age, ability, and aptitude. This can be done either by full-time attendance at school or in some other way. But the responsibility and duty is with the parent. The authorities have different duties. They are responsible for seeing that there are sufficient suitable schools and for bringing the parent before the courts if he fails in *his* duty.

The parent may fail in several ways. He may refuse to send the child to school at all and not provide any alternative education; he may send the child only very occasionally or for only part of the day; he may send the child to the school he chooses, knowing full well that the child will not be admitted. If he keeps the child at home he may offer only part-time or otherwise unsuitable education. Whatever he does, as soon as it appears to the authority that the parent is failing in his duty, the

authority have an obligation to act. The parent might even say, 'Look, I'm failing in my duty, now you must act.'

What happens then? The authority must serve upon the parent a notice, requiring him within a specified time, not less than fourteen days from the service of the notice, to satisfy them that the child is receiving full-time education suitable to his age, ability, and aptitude, either by regular attendance or otherwise. The authority have no option in the matter. If it appears that the child is not receiving education, the notice must be served.

Serving a notice does not take us very far by itself. But it can be a beginning of the complicated process by which a parent can insist on his right of choice. Suppose that, instead of sending the child to the school the authority have chosen, the parent just ignores the notice and either keeps the child at home unsuitably educated or sends him daily to a school where he is daily refused admission. What then? At this stage the authority can serve a written notice of their intention to make a School Attendance Order for the child. The Order cannot be made until fifteen days after this written notice has been sent. It is at this point that the law gives the parent an opportunity of nominating the school he wishes the child to attend. The Act says that between the notice of the Order and the issue of the Order itself, the parent can select a school at which he desires the child to become a registered pupil, and that school will, unless the Minister otherwise directs, be named in the Order.

This is reflected in the terms of the notice to the parents, the first part of which is:

1. I am directed by the X local education authority to refer to the notice addressed to you on the X date, and to state that the authority are of the opinion that your child is not receiving efficient full-time education suitable to his age, ability and aptitude, and that it is expedient that the child should attend school.
2. The authority therefore propose to serve upon you, under the provisions of Section 37(2) of the Education Act 1944, a School Attendance Order which will require you to cause the child to become a registered pupil at a particular school to be named in the Order. If you fail to comply with the Order you will be guilty of an offence

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and it will be the duty of the authority to take proceedings against you.

3. You have the right under Section 37 of the Act to select the school at which you want your child to attend. It is therefore open to you at any time up to fifteen days from the date of this letter to notify the authority of the name of the school which you want your child to attend.

That is not quite all the letter – but before finishing it let us look again at the Act. Suppose the authority do not like the school the parent has chosen, what can they do about it? Well, the Act says (and the precise words are important) that if they are of the opinion that the school selected by the parent as the school to be named in a School Attendance Order is unsuitable to the age, ability, or aptitude of the child, or that attendance at the school so selected would involve unreasonable expense to the authority, the authority may, after giving the parent notice of their intention to do so, apply to the Minister for a direction determining what school is to be named in the Order. It is extremely important to notice that the authority cannot go to the Minister just because they do not like the school chosen by the parent. They have to show that the choice is unsuitable to the child's age, ability, or aptitude, or would cause unreasonable expense.

Now we can go back and complete the letter to the parent.

4. The authority consider the following school (or schools) suitable for your child. If you select this school (or one of these schools) this will be the school named in the Order. If you would prefer some other school you may indicate its name, but the authority will then have to consider whether the school chosen by you is suitable and also, in cases where this question arises, whether unreasonable expense would be involved. If they are not satisfied they may decide to refer the matter to the Minister of Education, who has power to direct what school shall be named in the Order.
5. If you do not choose any school or do not reply to this letter within fifteen days of the date of despatch, the authority will proceed to make an Order inserting the name of X school.

The parent has a specific right to nominate the school. The authority can appeal to the Minister but only after telling the

parent that they propose to do so and only on the grounds of unsuitability and unreasonable cost. The Minister has the final word as to what school is stated in the Order. If after all this the parent still refuses to send the child to the school named in the Order, the case can be taken to the courts, since it is an offence to fail to comply with the terms of the School Attendance Order. The parent can try to bring before the courts the whole of the facts and circumstances. If the courts acquitted the parent they could order that the School Attendance Order should cease to be in force – and we are back where we started.

The process outlined here is long and difficult: it is almost a war of attrition. It might almost have been designed to be as difficult as possible, and certainly very few parents have tried to use it. But it has its advantages. It is the only way at present in which a parent has a legal right to nominate the school of his choice. If he uses it, only the Minister, not the local authority, can gainsay him. A parent who followed the procedure step by step would be in a much stronger position than one who simply wrote to his M.P. or direct to the Minister. The length of the process need not be to the parent's disadvantage always. Sometimes the mere threat to embark upon it will persuade the authority to agree with the parent's wishes. Its great disadvantage is that the child is made a pawn in the game. He has to be kept at home, or taken daily to a school which daily refuses him admission, while the process works itself out.

KEEPING THE CHILD AT HOME

There is one final point. What if a parent wishes his child not to go to school at all? The 1944 Act says that it is the duty of the parent to see that the child gets efficient full-time education suitable to his age, ability, and aptitude, 'either by regular attendance at school or otherwise'. There is not very much guidance as to what kind of 'otherwise' is acceptable. The only obvious case under the present law is that of Mrs Joy Baker, who fought the Norfolk County Council for eight years for the right not to send her children to school. In the course of this she was fined and sentenced to imprisonment (which she avoided on

appeal) and had to fight the county's attempt to make her children wards of court. The basis of her case was that she disapproved of schools and that her children could be seen to be 'educated' – even though they received no formal instruction. She herself had no special training to be a teacher and encouraged the children to follow their own interests. The moral of this seems to be that you can keep your children at home all the time and refuse to send them to school provided you are prepared to fight it out with the authorities for eight years.

CHOICE AMONG INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS

By contrast with the state system the possibility of choice of independent schools is enormous. It is true that there are some particular schools which are very difficult to get into, so a parent may be denied his particular choice. Equally there are some particular children for whom finding a suitable school may be a very great problem. There are some parents who reject the possibility of rational choice by putting their son's name down for a particular school at birth. It might as well be said at once that a parent who allows future plans and aspirations to weigh more heavily than the present needs of his child cannot make good decisions – though he may do the right thing by chance. Even so, a parent who wants his child to go to a traditional public school can normally expect to get him into one, and the same applies to the rather smaller number of parents who want 'progressive' or 'freedom' schools. What they have to do is pay for it. Even here, as can be seen later, there are ways of avoiding shouldering the burden of heavy fees all at once.

The point is that a parent with money who starts to consider schools is not bound in any way by the area in which he lives or by the particular schools that happen to be available locally. He can look round the whole country. He can favour any kind of school. And if he finds after two or three years that the school of his choice is not what he thought, he can take his child away and choose somewhere else. There are all kinds of reasons why people decide to pay for their children's education. They include

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habit, snobbery, ignorance, social aspiration, a belief in boarding education, relatively small classes, or the career advantages of the old boy net. It remains true that the most distinctive difference in practice between people who pay privately and people who don't is that people who pay choose.

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In general it is the people who pay fees who choose. They at any rate expect to do so and may have had some practice in it, especially if their family have been doing it for ages (though this often means simply 'choosing' the same school generation after generation). People whose children go to state schools may not have very much choice – but they occasionally have some. They too need to know how to choose wisely if they get the chance. And it would be no bad thing if parents approached the state schools to which their children had been allocated *as if* they had a choice. If they have none, there is all the more reason for looking at the school carefully and critically, discovering what it sets out to do, what it offers, and what it lacks. This will enable parents to support or supplement what the school is doing. A bit of informed inquiry does no school any harm, and one way of increasing the chance of choice among state schools is to show that parents want it and can use it wisely when they get it. This section, therefore, is about how to judge a school – any school.

No one can tell you what school to choose. Choosing a school is a question of matching two uniques – a child and a school – and it can be done only by someone with an intimate knowledge of both. Parents at any rate have the chance to know their own child well, at least from one point of view. They can try to know him better by hearing what other adults (say teachers) have to say about him, by having him tested intellectually or psychologically, or by accepting the results of school or public examinations. All these things can widen a parent's knowledge and reduce his bias towards his child.

It is nowhere near so simple to gain intimate knowledge of a school. Most parents rely pretty heavily on hearsay, and this

can be very unreliable. The fact that six of your friends say that school A is a good one is no guarantee that it will be all right for your child. Probably their opinion is based on a combination of rumour, a quick general impression, and the absence of obvious disaster or unhappiness. Hearsay evidence from people engaged in education is perhaps a bit better, though it is very surprising how little teachers know of other teachers' schools. A school is a very closed world. Even inspectors doing a full inspection lasting several days do not see the school as it works normally, and inspectors' reports are anyway entirely confidential. You may feel that you can judge by 'results' – though even here parents are often undecided as to whether the most important result is the 'type of child' a school produces or its success in the relevant examinations or on the sports field. Many parents quickly become proud of whatever the school does – whatever their expectations had been initially.

Some fee-paying parents go to advisory bodies or scholastic agencies. These are useful in so far as they can give factual information or have an up-to-date note of vacancies, but they cannot choose a school for you any more than anyone else can.

The obvious thing to do is to see the schools themselves. Ring up or write to the head and fix an appointment – in state or independent schools. You cannot choose a school in any real sense unless you visit it. The more schools you visit, of course, the better will be your standards of comparison. Even so it is easy to be misled. Many parents regress to their own childhood when they get anywhere near a school and find themselves overawed by a headmaster who would not be so impressive if they met him casually. The golden rule is to start from the child. This may seem merely platitudinous, but there are a large number of people who do not do it. The father who puts his son's name down at birth for his own old school is not making a choice at all but giving way to a conditioned reflex. What you have to do is to decide, as near the relevant time as is practicable, what sort of things your child needs and wants. You can then make a list of the things you consider important and against this you can judge the available alternatives. Every

HOW TO JUDGE A SCHOOL

parents' list will be somewhat different, if only in its order of priorities. But every parent should try to make his own list formally or informally and taking the best advice, both from friends and professionally, that he can get. The following are examples of some of the things parents should consider. They are not meant to be an exhaustive list but simply a guide. And when all is done there is perhaps no way of judging the final quality of a school — you can only guess at it from the way in which it measures up to the individual demands you make of it.

Type of School

What kind of school are you looking for, or visiting? Is it a state, direct-grant, independent school? How many children are there? — boys or girls, or mixed? To what age do children normally stay there? Is it a day or boarding school? Some children need a boarding school, and for many different reasons: the most obvious is that the family itself is in some way incomplete. You might also feel that boarding schools have positive advantages (see pages 146 and 152).

Fees

If it is a fee-paying school, you will want to know what the fees are, and if there are any extras. Is there any way of getting help to pay them, either through scholarships offered by the school or through your local authority? Even in state schools you may be asked to buy a special uniform or sports equipment.

Entrance

How is entrance to the school arranged? Find out about examinations, if any, and when a child has to be entered. In fee-paying schools it is as well to discover whether 'putting a boy's name down' means anything at all.

Buildings and Grounds

It is possible to get a good education in a building which is very nearly a slum, but it is obviously worth considering the age, state of repair, and adequacy of the school buildings. Are they

overcrowded? Does the school find it difficult to give all children some time in a laboratory? Are there classes going on in the corridors? Are there any playing fields, and if so, where? In boarding schools, are the dormitories civilized - or do the children have study-bedrooms?

Staff

How many teachers are there, compared with the number of pupils? Are there both men and women? Are they capable of offering as a body pretty well any subject your child might want to study? Are they all very old - or very young? How often do they change?

Academic Standards

The only rule of thumb there is for academic standards is some sort of external examination. What sort of performance does the school put up at 11+ or in G.C.E. and entrance exams for universities? In secondary schools, discover to what age pupils normally stay there. If a prospectus refers vaguely to 'several awards at universities', make the headmaster be specific about how many and where.

Out-of-School Activities

In any good school there will be quite a lot going on outside the formal lessons. You can discover how much and what. Are there music, drama, and clubs and societies of all kinds? Is there a cadet force, scouts, or guides?

Sport

What emphasis is placed on sport? How many times a week will a child have compulsory games? Is the emphasis on team games, or are there particular sports or physical activity in which the school specializes? Is it possible to learn to swim?

Other Children

Many parents are concerned only to preserve (or improve) their children's accents, but others think it important for a school to be socially or intellectually homogeneous or diverse.

HOW TO JUDGE A SCHOOL

Punishment and Discipline

Most schools have some form of prefect system. You can discover how the prefects are selected and whether, in boarding schools, there is any fagging. What punishments are used – and, more important perhaps, by whom?

Miscellaneous

There are some questions to which even headmasters normally cannot give accurate answers but which are very important to a child. How much bullying goes on in a school? Are homosexual activities common? These are more crucial questions in boarding schools, perhaps, but you need to consider them in day schools. The most you can hope to do is decide whether you think a bit of bullying, beating, or homosexuality is of any consequence.

Religion and Co-education

There are two very important questions which you may want to decide as a parent but which it is very difficult to decide from studying your particular child. These are religion and co-education. At the age when one normally chooses a school for a child you cannot tell whether he personally will thrive in a religious or non-religious, in a co-educational or a single-sexed school. You can only go on general principles and your own prejudices. Most religious parents will want their children to go to religious schools, but even non-religious parents might want to choose a particular kind of religious background. It is worth discovering how much religious observance is compulsory. In particular, parents of some faiths should discover early whether their children might be excluded on religious grounds.

Conclusion

These then are some of the things which are useful to have in mind when judging a school. People who pay tend to consider them anyway, though perhaps not as thoroughly as they should. People whose children go to state schools may not have very much choice. But they may have some, and they should take as much care as they can in judging what is available.

PAYING FOR EDUCATION

Most people who work pay for education whether they have children or not. They pay in rates and taxes. If you want to know how much we all pay in this way in your area, have a look at the back of your rate demand note. No education in this country is 'free', but in the state service people contribute according to their means and not according to the number of children they have. And even in the state service people can pay for the 'extras' of education individually. Simply keeping a child at school, especially when he might otherwise be earning, is an expense, and so are any books or instruments like slide rules, violins, or cricket bats. Some parents may want their children to have more tuition than the state schools provide. They may do this by private coaching or by taking out a correspondence course. They may buy an expensive encyclopaedia.

To a limited extent, people can get help with some of these added expenses. The most obvious way is through maintenance grants which the local education authorities are empowered to make to the parents of needy children. Some counties have schemes of help specifically for buying school uniforms. There is no consistency in this at all. In some local authorities a child over 15 may get a very generous maintenance grant. In others he may get nothing at all. In a sense the whole of the school meals and milk service is a contribution towards maintenance of children at school. The milk is free and the prices of school meals cover only the cost of the food itself. Family allowances are another maintenance contribution.

It is people whose children go to independent schools who are normally thought of as paying for education. A public school can cost £500 a year in fees alone and most people expect their sons at any rate to stay at one for five years - making £2,500 in all. Then one has to add to this the cost of keep, feeding and clothing the boy, buying school uniform, sports equipment, and so on. Obviously many people look round for ways of easing this financial burden.

Some wonder whether anything can be done through the local

authority. This is unlikely in most cases. You have to show that there are special circumstances, like the death or separation of parents; the parent's need to travel a great deal, particularly abroad; a doctor's statement that boarding school is medically or psychologically necessary (this is difficult to establish); or a clear demonstration that a child cannot get a suitable education except at a boarding school. If you establish one of these grounds, the local authority will first offer you a place in one of their own boarding schools – if they have one. If not, they may offer you a place provided by another local authority – and it is only failing this that the authority will consider paying fees on your behalf at an independent boarding school.

If your child goes to a local authority boarding school there will be no tuition fees but you will have to pay according to your means for the child's maintenance and you will have to supply his clothes and keep him during the holidays. The full maintenance fee at local authority boarding schools is usually between £175 and £200 a year. A very few authorities will pay the tuition fees of pupils at public schools as a hang-over from the 1930s, when it was thought that selected children of poor parents should go to public schools.

When a child gets a grammar school place at 11+ his parents sometimes think of sending him to a local boarding school, getting the local authority to pay tuition fees on the strength of the 11+ success and making up the difference themselves. Although it would be too sweeping to say that this never happens, local authorities will normally not pay for a place in someone else's school if they have a similar school themselves. They regard it, understandably enough, as 'unreasonable public expenditure'.

A popular alternative to both claiming help from the local education authorities on grounds of need and actually paying the full fees of an independent school is to get the child into a direct grant grammar school. As has been shown on page 92 the fees are considerably lower than those of independent schools, even for boarding places. There is in fact an imperfectly concealed state subsidy. The trouble here is that you have to show that your child is at least of grammar-school

standard - and there are not all that number of boarding places in direct-grant schools (something over 9,000, in fact).

Many parents imagine that their children might win scholarships to public schools. There are scholarships going, but not all that many. The typical boys' public school has two or three. And a scholarship rarely covers the cost of school fees. Many are for £50 or £100 a year, which is a help, but it is not normally enough. The luckiest poor are those who are favoured by past donors: for some reason the clergy, schoolmasters, and warriors have numbers of scholarships dedicated to their children. A glance through the *Public Schools' Year Book* will give you an idea of what is going.

For most parents the only way to meet heavy school fees is to be able to afford it! All the expedients tend to depend on your having quite a lot of money anyway, or on getting someone else, with money, to pay for you. For example, some parents can get fees paid by a child's grandparents or from the father's firm. Anyone except a parent can pay for a child's education through deeds of covenant of settlements. This method is comparatively cheap because of the income tax remissions obtained, but if enough is paid to bring a child's income to more than £100 a year the parents lose the child allowance. Anyone interested in this method should consult a solicitor because an agreement has to be drawn up that will satisfy the Inspector of Taxes. Parents may not arrange reciprocally to finance the education of each other's children.

Another way of easing the burden is simply by saving in some way. You can pay a lump sum in advance to cover the normal five-year period a child stays at school and there are insurance agencies which will make provision for this even if you have not decided which particular school you want. The leading public schools have arrangements whereby a single composition fee can be paid well in advance. The advantage is that the lump sum is less than five times the current fee: the disadvantage is that it does not cover the real possibility of the fees rising even before the child goes to the school. The terms offered are not particularly attractive. You would do better by investing a lump sum at birth in low coupon stock maturing in thirteen years' time.

You can also, in a similar way, provide a rising amount of money throughout the five years of school life for an initial capital outlay of less than the composition fee. What you need for all this is a friendly stockbroker or accountant.

Yet another method is to take out an endowment policy immediately on the birth of the child. Any insurance broker will explain this. There is a genial variation on this theme. On the birth of the child you take out a twenty-one-year endowment policy with profits. You pay the premiums regularly for thirteen years. From then on you borrow on the strength of the policy the premium, the fees you have to pay, and the interest on the loan! The burden of fees is entirely removed, you have very useful life cover, and the 'with profits' clause assures you of a handsome cash profit as well.

Medical and Other Special Services

The duty of the local authorities under the Education Act to contribute towards the physical development of the community – as well as the spiritual, moral, and mental development – is a wide one. They have to create conditions for healthy growth and encourage their pupils towards healthy living. They must provide light, spacious, clean, well-ventilated, and well-heated schools with adequate playing space, gymnasiums, swimming bath, proper lavatories, and possibly school camps in the country. They can be the means of providing playing fields.

MEALS AND MILK

More specifically, however, they have a duty to provide 'milk, meals, and other refreshments' for pupils in their schools. The Building Regulations lay down the amount of dining space that is required to be made for every child expected to take meals, and the Provision of Meals Regulations require the authorities to employ school meals organizers and adequate kitchen staffs. They may also require a teacher to supervise his own pupils at meals unless the authority concerned thinks this would adversely affect the quality of the teaching. There is general opposition among school teachers to these school meals duties.

Milk – a third of a pint a day – is provided free in all schools and the cost is borne by the Exchequer. For meals parents are charged an amount roughly equal to the cost of the food. The charge may be wholly or partially remitted in cases of need. The cost of school meals, borne initially by the local authorities, is met in full (up to a maximum cost per meal) by the Department of Education. The local authorities can make arrangements to provide milk and meals for independent schools in their area.

MEDICAL AND OTHER SPECIAL SERVICES

In the autumn of 1963 nearly four million pupils were eating school dinners in state schools – rather over half of the total numbers. Only 300 schools or departments out of the total of 30,000 had no school meals facilities. Nearly six million children – over four-fifths of the total – take milk at school.

CLOTHING AND CLEANSING

The local authorities also have power to provide children with clothing to ensure that they are sufficiently and suitably clad. They must, however, require the parent to pay as much as they think he can without financial hardship. Equally the local authorities can see that any pupil is not verminous and foul. After an inspection the authorities can order the pupil concerned to be cleansed and if the child again becomes verminous or foul the parent is liable to a fine of twenty shillings. In 1961 over 200,000 children were found to be infested. The parents of 35,000 of these were given notice to cleanse them, and nearly 6,000 children were cleansed by the local education authorities.

MEDICAL AND DENTAL INSPECTIONS

Finally, the local education authorities have to arrange for the medical inspection of children at appropriate intervals in all schools which they maintain, and they may require pupils to be submitted for these inspections. It is their duty to provide free medical and dental treatment for pupils at their schools. Normally treatment is given under the National Health Service, though the school health service must continue to offer dental treatment or arrange for it to be given in hospital. The general pattern of medical inspections for schoolchildren is that all the children of an age-group are examined on their entry to primary school, just before they leave school at 15, and once or twice in between. Recently a number of authorities have been giving up the intermediate examination for all children and examining instead only selected children who seem to need it. Every local education authority must appoint a principal school medical officer and a principal dental officer.

MEDICAL AND OTHER SPECIAL SERVICES

In 1961 (the latest year for which published figures are available) over 2 million children were given routine medical inspections (15 per cent of them were found to need treatment), and over $1\frac{1}{2}$ million had special inspections and re-inspections. Over $3\frac{1}{2}$ million had their teeth inspected. Nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ million were found to require treatment, and $1\frac{1}{4}$ million were actually treated. Some 490,000 were treated for defective vision and squint, and 134,000 for defects of ear, nose, and throat. Over 1,500 hearing aids were provided, and spectacles were prescribed for over $\frac{1}{4}$ million children. Over a million minor ailments were treated. Some 59,000 pupils were given speech therapy and 46,000 child guidance treatment.

It is difficult to say precisely what the staff of the school health service amounts to, as so many of them devote only part of their time to the service. There were in 1961, for example, 2,457 medical officers, but the full-time equivalent of this number is reckoned as only 954. The full-time equivalent of other officers is: dental officers and dental surgery assistants, over 1,000 each; school nurses, over 2,600; and a couple of hundred nursing assistants. The service also employed the full-time equivalent of a gross of physiotherapists, a handful of chiropodists, 90 psychiatrists, over 200 educational psychologists, and over 100 psychiatric social workers.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Educational Controversies

Education as a subject creates quite a bit of disagreement among its practitioners. This is not surprising. It is an intensely personal subject and any attempt to generalize about it is bound to lead to controversy. There are, in fact, a number of running conflicts in education which will probably never be resolved. Which is better, co-educational or segregated schooling? Which are preferable, boarding schools or day schools, comprehensive or separate secondary schools? So far as children are concerned as individuals, there is no final answer to these questions. It all depends on the child. Equally, there can be no final answer so far as teachers are concerned. Teachers differ. The best one can do is to say that, so far as one can see, most children or most teachers do best in such and such circumstances. Even then people will not agree on what they mean by 'best'.

Far too little has been done to discover what various theories of education actually mean in practice. The necessary long-term and detailed research has not been done. So the arguments can go on and no one need be under any obligation to refer to the facts. In this unsatisfactory situation the best that can be done in a reference book is to state baldly the common arguments used on each side of perennial controversies. It is impossible to comment on their validity.

CO-EDUCATION

The main argument in favour of co-education is that it is 'natural'. Boys and girls exist. They live together in families; later they work together and get married to each other. The place for the sexes to begin learning to live and work together is

at school. Good emotional and social relationships depend to a large extent on the background built up from an early age, and segregated schooldays distort the background, making satisfactory relationships difficult later. Bringing boys and girls together in their formative years creates a basis for understanding later: artificial barriers in childhood create problems, especially during adolescence, which are quite unnecessary. Education is not only a matter of learning facts, it is a preparation for life. In co-educational schools the boys and girls learn how to get on with each other. Children from schools with only their own half of the human species are reserved and awkward with the other half. After leaving school they go through a period of quite unnecessary misery and insecurity. Adolescence is bound to be made worse when schools pretend that sex is something that doesn't exist. Indeed, in turning children in upon themselves they risk making sex an obsession or diverting it into homosexual and lesbian directions.

Other countries adopt co-education as a matter of course and look upon the single-sex system with surprise and even horror. They know that judged by academic standards (a common argument for segregation) co-education works. There is now a little evidence, in fact, that co-education is academically better. Sex segregation in British schools is simply a historical accident, one of the dire results of the influence of public schools. We do not have single-sex families, single-sex parents, or single-sex factories – why single-sex schools? It is probably some hang-over from the idea that women are not worth educating. Segregation is also harmful because it means that staff are segregated too. Girls get no chance of being taught by men, or boys by women. And in their work the teachers have colleagues of the same sex only. This accounts for the curious narrowness of single-sex schools. But children learn not only from teachers but from each other. The sexes have different approaches to subjects and in a co-educational school these differences can enrich the lessons. Boys and girls teach each other because they are alive to different levels of meaning. The farce of single-sex education is often most visible in the school play, with the

CO-EDUCATION

boys playing the parts of wives and mistresses and the girls striding about in Wellington boots and false beards.

The main argument against co-education is that boys and girls differ. They differ in their biological make-up, their interests, their aspirations and expectations. More important, they differ in their rates of development. At 13 girls are gaining maturity, poise, and emotional attachments, while boys are still unruly, sissy-scoring toughs. Trying to teach them in the same class is like trying to teach two groups of different ages together. Left to themselves, children naturally choose friends among contemporaries of the same sex.

Adolescents may be reserved and awkward but there is nothing to suggest that this is very much lessened in co-educational schools. Adolescents are confused, aggressive, shy, and difficult wherever they are. Indeed co-education simply makes matters worse. The child has to cope both with his school work and the problems of facing an emotional change made obvious by the presence of the opposite sex. The idea that happy marriages are more easily made by people from co-educational schools and that people from single-sex schools have less satisfactory emotional relationships is a myth. The idea that single-sex schools produce homosexuals and lesbians is an old wives' tale.

Single-sex education may be a historical accident and very rare abroad, but it has been proved here by the test of time. People go on doing it because it seems right. There is no reason why schools should copy the pattern of adult society. They differ from adult society in all kinds of respects. They are designed for children, not for adults. They are and should be different from the adult world. What is important is that there should be places where children can best grow and develop. It may be true that teachers in single-sex schools do not have colleagues of the opposite sex. This is equally true of many other jobs, and it does not follow, of course, that they have no contact at all with the opposite sex. Teachers are themselves by no means more anxious to teach in co-educational schools. On the contrary.

EDUCATIONAL CONTROVERSIES

The differences between boys and girls militate against their learning together. Indeed, lessons have to be planned as two at a time because what interests one half bores the other. Single-sex schools are communities where boys or girls can develop best at their own pace. For this, boys playing Lady Macbeth (as they did in Shakespeare's day) is a small price to pay.

BOARDING SCHOOLS

Normally when people argue about boarding schools they think of single-sex institutions, although there are a few co-educational ones. Similarly there are some single-sex boarding schools (those run by the Society of Friends, for example) to which many of the traditional objections do not apply. In general, however, the arguments for and against the traditional single-sex boarding schools are as follows.

The chief arguments for boarding school are that children enjoy it, are better educated, and get better character training.

Children enjoy living in large groups and thrive on it. Every boarding-school child is continually conscious of living in a closed and privileged institution. This gives him a real sense of security and of 'belonging': he knows he is an insider. The child who goes to a day school is rootless, a commuter, his day divided firmly into two.

Boarding school is a complete society at work: the day school is only a partial community. Seeing the whole society and being partially responsible for running it in the last years develop a child's self-assurance and his ability to get on with and handle other people. This is why leaders in many fields come from boarding schools even when the schools do not set out to inculcate 'leadership'. The child's knowledge of people is broadened: he is not restricted to making friends in his locality or of his own age. The habit of looking beyond his home locality is built into his upbringing. He gets practice in assessing the qualities of his companions without the interference of parental opinion. Sometimes children need help and do not get it from parents or teachers (both are human and both can

fail). Often they can work out their needs among their companions and it is easy to do this in the community of the boarding school. The rough and tumble of life among their contemporaries can be a help as well as the character-building experience it is more often recognized to be.

Most children enjoy and respond to living with their contemporaries in an environment especially designed for them. This advantage is combined with the fact that home ties are not broken. Children spend at least a quarter of the year at home. At school, they are in touch with their parents through visits and letters. They are not, as most opponents of boarding suggest, 'deprived'. A deprived child is insecure already and his contact with home is normally unreliable. Even so, children whose parents find them difficult often get on better away from the tension of home. The child from a broken home, or whose parents are often on the move, needs the stability of at least one aspect of his life preserved. A boarding school does this.

The upper and upper-middle classes have been sending their sons to boarding schools for generations. Personal insecurity is not an obvious attribute of these classes: they are in fact conspicuously self-assured.

Children also like routine. It gives them a sense of security. In the same way they like rules, and boarding-school rules are rarely unreasonable. They make it possible for school life to function. The principle of keeping rules becomes a habit in boarding school, and afterwards the child finds it easier to accept standards of adult society.

The boarding-schools' academic reputation is based on the facts of smaller classes and traditions of sixth-form work. Other things being equal, academic standards are likely to be higher in boarding schools. The child's whole environment is an academic one. He can concentrate without distraction. The pattern of daily life allows for sports and recreation, but it also makes time for private work. Day-school 'homework' is no substitute for 'prep'. What is more, the boarding-school child has teachers and libraries constantly at hand. Local public libraries are no substitute; they vary enormously in accessibility and quality, and in any case are not designed specifically for

schoolchildren. The time that many day pupils spend in dreary and wasteful daily travel is better spent.

The teachers too have a better chance to be good. They are on the spot. They, too, are better able to concentrate on their job. They know their pupils better and can better understand their needs. Boarding-school teachers have other advantages. A parent emotionally involved with his child (what parent is not?) is often the worst person to deal properly with the child's upbringing. A teacher is objective. He is experienced in handling children and their problems. The boarding-school teacher knows the child and can inspire his confidence. Most children have a phase when they respect their teachers more than their parents, and here the boarding-school teacher can be of more positive use than his day-school colleague.

It is not only academic facilities that are better in boarding school. In a boarding school, the child's home for so much of the year, the environmental unit is enormous. All the things he might not have at hand at home – space indoors and out, books, hobbies, friends – are available on the grand scale. The child has without effort a vast range of choice. Normally, there is more room for sports, more time for hobbies. Playing fields are adequate and on the spot: school societies have a recognized place. In short a boarding-school child's time is organized so that he can get the most out of work and play. He is assured that his study time will always be quiet and uninterrupted. He will have all the books he wants and expert help if he needs it. During his leisure time or sports periods his companions will be free to share his pleasures without anyone having to go home for an early tea or to help with the shopping or washing up. The boarding school is a community organized specifically for the children in it. It meets their needs without distraction. It is a microcosm of life in the world outside and children who come to grips with it (as most do) learn how to come to grips with the adult world.

People who complain of the social advantages of boarding schools do not seem to realize that this is an argument in favour of them, not against. If a school will give their child a secure place in the world, why not choose it? It is a fact of national life

that boarding schools have intimate connexions with Oxford and Cambridge and with business. Why not buy this for your child? A boarding school is at worst a cheap investment – one parent has estimated that it is worth at least £200 a year to a child for the rest of his life. Similarly, opponents of boarding schools complain that the children come from a single social background, but this too is an argument in their favour. Wise parents choose their children's friends. It is sensible for your child to be at a school where his class-mates' parents think as you do. A little bit of snobbery is a small price to pay for these obvious advantages.

It has yet to be proved that the best way of dealing with the problems of adolescents is to throw boys and girls together at the crucial time. All the arguments against co-educational schools apply here with added force. Boys and girls develop at different rates and at different ages. At a boarding school a child can get through the period of adolescence without the distraction and the constant presence of the opposite sex. There is time enough for children to get to know the opposite sex after they leave school, when they are older and wiser. The idea that boarding schools produce homosexuals and lesbians is an obvious myth. Homosexual behaviour is common in all classes through society whether people have been to boarding schools or not.

The chief arguments against boarding school are that the schools are closed, authoritarian, and restrictive.

Children thrive better in bad homes than in good institutions. A child's emotional life-line is his relationship with his parents. Boarding school undermines this and offers nothing in its place. The image of loving parents in the background is not enough – especially for young children who are not capable of abstraction. It is not the length of time a child is away from home that makes him feel cut off. Parental authority is usurped by the school: parents themselves have to keep its rules. Children are not free to see their parents when they wish. A boarding-school child does not know his parents. When he comes home at the end of term, his parents are strangers. By the time he has got

used to them again at the end of a holiday he has to return to school. Because he sees his parents so infrequently he regards all contact with adults outside school as a privilege rather than a natural right. The whole grown-up world is unnaturally remote. Of course many children survive boarding school. Some do not, and there is no way of telling whether a child will suffer during the years away from home. Having sent him, pressures of money invested and the difficulty of finding another school are against removing him. Even children from 'problem' families need not get on better in boarding schools. The more difficult a child is the more he needs individual care and the less likely he is to get it away from home. In fact, homes caring for children separated from their parents have realized the importance of boarding children in small informal family groups. This necessary revolution has not reached the ordinary boarding school.

The closed world of a boarding school is tribal and authoritarian. It trains children into accepting hierarchies. Progress through the school is seen to bring increasing privileges including trivial ones like leaving certain buttons undone or walking on a particular piece of grass. Unlovable aspects of ordinary schools are emphasized at boarding schools. These include undue submission to authority, unquestioning parochial loyalty, the subordination, often menial, of younger children to older ones, and various forms of snobbery. They produce on the one hand people who are over-submissive to those above, dependent on hierarchy and arrogant to those below, and on the other hand people with a disregard for all rules and conventions. The regimentation of boarding school only makes children aware of their lack of freedom. It delays the time when they must learn to organize their own lives and it means that they can develop their private interests (if these conflict with group interests) only by rebellion.

A child's study should take place among, and as one of, the ordinary activities of life. School is not like adult society and learning to live in school is not preparing for life outside. The problems and difficulties of democracy are not made easier by education in a tight authoritarian community. The idea that

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children in boarding schools meet others of different ages is a myth. Such friendships are normally considered taboo, sexual, or both. A child may be free to judge his contemporaries without parental pressure but he is subject instead to the pressures of tradition and mass opinion, which are worse.

Punishment in boarding school tends to be regressive. Beating and drills are common in boys' schools. Physical exhaustion is frequently used as a punishment. Punishment is often administered by the older pupils, which is bad for both punisher and punished. The prefect system is at best silly: if the prefects beat, it is nasty as well.

The reasons why most existing boarding schools have high academic standards is that they have a more favourable pupil-teacher ratio than other schools. It is this, not the fact of boarding, that is important. Making a child responsible for his own homework rather than setting compulsory periods of prep encourages responsibility. No school library is as good as a good public library to which a day-school child will have access. An awful lot of time in boarding school is wasted in compulsory and irrelevant pursuits. Moreover, if a child is unhappy no amount of good teaching or facilities will make him achieve academic success. Even if he does well academically, this is not sufficient reason for bringing him up as a cloistered individual, knowing little about the ordinary business of living. No teacher can give a child the special care he naturally gets at home. Relationships between children and teachers are formal. A child can seldom confide in a teacher. Staff changes aggravate this and upset any attachment a child may have for a teacher as a parent-figure.

Not all teachers are good. A bad boarding-school teacher is more dangerous than a bad day-school teacher. A child's dislike for a particular teacher affects both his achievements in school subjects and his emotional stability. In any case, are teachers the best people to handle children? There is something odd about anyone who shuts himself off in a single-sex institution. A glance at some boarding-school rules suggests doubts about the wisdom of the people who enforce them.

There are many day schools which have room for sports and

school societies, and these are normally more free from pressure to take part in them. No school can provide what most communities offer. A day-school child has a choice of theatres, concerts, and cinemas. He is not limited to the few outings which the school may arrange. More important, he knows that his needs and pleasures are not the only things to be considered. He learns to fit in with society at large. He can meet people of different abilities and backgrounds in political, church, and youth club activities.

Social distinctions are becoming less and less relevant, even in Britain. It is less and less likely that children will be able to get on through influence. It is far better for children and far more 'character-building' if they get where they want to be through their own work rather than through influence. The fact that other children have parents with similar incomes to your own is no guarantee of their desirability. Children need to learn that there are people in all social groups who can be good friends to them. They will get more out of life and be much nicer people if they know this.

Keeping the sexes apart in adolescence does not eliminate sex. It merely turns it in homosexual directions. The idea that children in boarding schools are not troubled by sex is nonsense. Single-sex boarding schools are simply unnatural. Compromises like the sixth-form dance ('no lipstick' – 'keep the lights on, please') are no basis for normal contact between boys and girls. Both boys and girls are sent to boarding schools at exactly the wrong time. Boys normally go at 8, which is too young. They are developmentally behind girls and suffer more from school worries. Girls usually start at 13, in the throes of puberty, when they need the sympathy and reassurance of their mothers. The socially accepted traits of the boarding-school child are of the cold and reserved 'typical' Englishman. These are symptoms of disturbance. The children have difficulty in making wholehearted relationships. Parents and substitutes have failed them. The opposite sex has been denied them. To them all human relationships are suspect. Their excessive loyalties to institutions persist as infantile substitutes throughout life. What else is the old school tie?

STAYING ON AT SCHOOL

NURSERY SCHOOLS

The argument for nursery schools is that children enjoy them because they offer somewhere to play and meet other children in a safe place specifically designed for them. Children become sociable at a very early age and want to be with other children. If children are not given the chance to be sociable at an age when they first want it, they can remain shy and withdrawn for the rest of their lives. They also enjoy a change of scenery. The nursery schools offer all this together with trained staff and proper equipment. They are doubly necessary in towns where children might otherwise have no room to play in safety or meet others. Nor should the interests of mothers be overlooked. They have a much better chance of being good if the sheer burden of their children is not incessant. Another advantage of the nursery school is that it smoothes the transition into full-time primary school at 5. (See also pages 72-3.)

The chief argument against nursery schools is that children are too young to leave home and that under the age of 5 their place is with their mothers. Many 5-year-olds are bewildered and exhausted by school and to send them earlier is unnatural and cruel. However freely a nursery school is organized, the children will have to be regimented to some extent. They are at an age when they need the full-time love and care of their mothers and when good mothers want the children at home with them. The children will be away at school soon enough at 5, and children in all other countries go to school later - at 6 or even 7. Nothing can compensate for the basic security of the family.

STAYING ON AT SCHOOL

Most educated people assume that children ought to stay on at school for as long as possible - and even longer at university and college. This view is not universal, however, and the fact that children are reaching puberty earlier is raising more doubts. The present school-leaving age is 15: it will be 16 in 1970-71.

The argument for staying on is that children develop so much

in adolescence and are only then able to learn the really important things of life. To leave school at 15 is to enter adult life with an education appropriate only to a child. Adolescence is quite difficult enough without its taking place in a new and alien environment. A school is designed for the children in it: the adult world is not. The benefits of staying on at school are reflected also in the individual's increased earning power. It is true that some schools are not very good and give their pupils a sense of waste and futility – but this is an argument for improving the schools, not for turning children out into something worse, like a factory.

An argument against staying on is that although schools may be designed for children, they are not designed for adolescents. A boy or girl wants to take on new adult responsibilities and should be encouraged to do so. Going to work and earning money may give them a new sense of purpose, and there are many jobs where further education and training is possible. It is not good for young people to be a drain on their parents and the community for longer than is necessary.

STREAMING

Probably most teachers are in favour of streaming. The chief arguments in its favour are that it is the most effective way of dividing very large groups, that children work best when they are with others of similar ability, that teachers themselves have a better chance to be good with a more homogeneous group, and that it is possible for a syllabus, textbooks, and standards to be quite delicately matched to a rapid or a slow pace of learning. Children who show sudden improvement or deterioration can be moved from one stream to another.

There is quite a lot of criticism of streaming from parents, particularly in the junior school. The complaint is that with the best will in the world (which is often lacking) streaming is too rigid, and a child selected for the A stream at 7 is already pre-selected for the 11+: a child put in the B stream at the earlier age is, so to speak, pre-rejected. There is less criticism of streaming at the secondary stage, though teachers in secondary modern

COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS

schools are often articulate about its dire effects, on morale, progress and behaviour, in the C and D streams. There is also some feeling that the D streams of grammar schools represent a kind of sunken problem. The other arguments against streaming are normally put in social rather than educational terms. Children should not be segregated from other, different children for their school lives, and streaming is said to reflect social rather than educational differences anyway (more middle-class children are in the top streams). It is bad for the lower streams and it encourages teachers to treat children as classes, not as individuals. Some brave opponents of streaming say that the bright children learn more by helping others.

COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS

In some ways the argument about comprehensive schools is an extension of the argument about streaming. Their advocates see them as a way of abolishing social and academic segregation at 11 and of giving all children the chance to come up against 'grammar school' standards of staff, curriculum, and aspirations. Opponents of comprehensive schools argue that they have to be unnecessarily large, unwieldy, and impersonal, and that the bright children in them are bound to be held back. Otherwise the argument tends to run between well-worn assertions about the educational and social advantages of teaching children together or splitting them up.

Mr Robin Pedley has recently published some figures suggesting that the academic argument is all but settled. He suggests that in an orthodox arrangement of secondary schools (with selection at 11+ for grammar and secondary modern) about 10 per cent of each age-group take 'good' G.C.E.s at 16. In comprehensive schools the figure is more like 14 per cent, and individual schools do much better than this.

CHAPTER NINE

Further and Higher Education

Any account of further and higher education that is coherent is almost bound to be misleading. It is like the vegetation of South America: it contains anything you can think of. Much of it is jungle; there are weird and exotic growths and there are some very large areas of desert. This chapter is an attempt to offer a bird's-eye view.

(i) FURTHER EDUCATION

It may be as well to start with a definition. Further education is the third of the stages of education mentioned in the 1944 Act. It is defined in the Act (Section 41) as 'full-time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age; and leisure time occupation, in such organized cultural training and recreational activities as are suited to their requirements, for any persons over compulsory school age who are able and willing to profit by the facilities provided for that purpose'. (Secondary education, it will be remembered, includes provision for senior pupils up to 19 years of age. So the definition of further education must be qualified so as to exclude education in secondary schools. In other words, an 18-year-old taking A level at a grammar school is still in the secondary stage and not in further education.)

COUNTY COLLEGES

One of the most important ways in which further education was to be provided was in county colleges. Under the Act local authorities had to establish county colleges as centres for giving further education, including physical, practical, and vocational

FURTHER EDUCATION

training, to people between the compulsory school-leaving age and 18 who were not in full-time education. This education was to enable them to develop their various aptitudes and capacities and to prepare them for the responsibilities of citizenship. The young persons were to attend the county colleges for one whole day or two half-days a week, for forty-four weeks a year. Alternatively, where suitable, the young person was to be compelled to attend continuously either for eight weeks or for two periods of four weeks each a year. There were similar regulations for enforcing attendance as exist for enforcing attendance at school. So far no county colleges as such have been built, and this part of the Act is a dead letter.

ADULT EDUCATION

This leaves two main ways in which further education is offered: full-time and part-time education in technical colleges, colleges of art, and so on, and what is largely called 'adult education', at evening institutes or in co-operation with voluntary bodies like the Workers' Educational Association. The variety of these is very great. People may wish to patch the rather ragged education they got at school. They may attend, for example, two nights a week to learn a foreign language. They may go for more broadly cultural classes – in literature, musical appreciation, or local history. They may pursue a hobby, like drama, pottery, or cooking, or seek to gain some grasp of the world around them through classes in economics, politics, or current affairs. These classes may be run by the Workers' Educational Association, by the universities, or by the local authorities.

The courses run by local authorities are likely to be in evening institutes: the classes take place in the evenings in schools or colleges that are used during the day for the normal education of children. During the academic year 1962–63 over a million people attended evening institutes, nearly two-thirds of them women. The largest single age-group was the one which had just left school, but very nearly two thirds of the total consisted of people aged 21 and over. All these attendances were, of course, voluntary.

THE YOUTH SERVICE

The 1944 Act also imposed on the local authorities the duty of providing for the leisure of young people. When it began, twenty years ago, the youth service was run by voluntary organizations, but in 1947 the Ministry of Education asked the local authorities to integrate it closely with the schools, the youth employment service, and the projected county colleges. Even so, the Albermarle committee reported in 1960 that the service was in a state of acute depression. After that the Ministry of Education announced a building programme and a training programme for youth leaders. The Department of Education gives grants to the national headquarters of various voluntary organizations and towards approved capital expenditure of local youth organizations. The local authorities also give grants towards local capital expenditure and towards maintenance costs, including the salaries of youth leaders. The authorities themselves also provide youth clubs and centres, camps and camp sites, sailing clubs, and so on. They run short conferences, training courses, rallies, and the like. A national college for training youth leaders was opened at Leicester in 1961.

TECHNICAL COLLEGES

Most of the rest of further education goes on in what are still normally called technical colleges. They ought more properly to be called colleges of further education. Much of what they do need not be regarded as technical at all. For example, they may be preparing their students for G.C.E. O or A levels. There are four types of colleges: local colleges, area colleges, regional colleges, and national colleges. All but the last of these are maintained by the local education authorities. The courses they offer are more fully explained in the section headed 'Technical Qualifications' (p. 160).

Local Colleges

There are under 300 local colleges going under the name of technical college, municipal college, technical institute, or

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college of further education. They offer mostly part-time courses and a great deal of their work is done in the evenings. They offer courses leading to O.N.C., City and Guilds 'craft' examinations, elementary R.S.A. examinations, and G.C.E. O and A level. They may also have some adult education courses and activities like those previously described, as well as some advanced work.

Area Colleges

There are over 160 area colleges offering courses for technicians and craftsmen, again mainly part-time. The courses may include those offered at the local colleges but will normally go further - to H.N.C., City and Guilds 'advanced craft' examinations, and some intermediate professional examinations. They may also offer courses in art and commerce. About sixty of the area colleges have quite a bit of day work. Many have sandwich courses leading to H.N.D. or short full-time block release instead of part-time courses. Even so, about half their students are between 15 and 18 attending mainly part-time and evening courses.

Regional Colleges

The twenty-five regional colleges offer a substantial number of courses leading to H.N.C. and H.N.D. Many of their students pass professional examinations or get exemption from them. Some take external degrees of London University and others the diploma in technology. There are some postgraduate courses in research. The colleges train senior technicians, craftsmen, and some technologists. Even so, in November 1962 over 50,000 students attended regional colleges in the evening only, 43,000 were in part-time day courses, under 13,000 in full-time courses, and 4,000 in sandwich courses.

National Colleges

There are six national colleges established and financed jointly by the Department of Education and particular industries to offer advanced technical studies in those industries. They are the National Colleges of Agricultural Engineering, Bedfordshire; Food Technology, Weybridge; Rubber Technology,

FURTHER AND HIGHER EDUCATION

London; Heating, Ventilating, Refrigeration, and Fan Engineering, London; the National Foundry College, Wolverhampton; and the National Leathersellers' College, London. There is also the College of Aeronautics at Cranfield, and the Royal College of Art in London offers training for design in industry as well as education in the fine arts.

Other Establishments

In addition to all this there are 166 art establishments, two dozen colleges of commerce in separate institutions, and thirty-eight agricultural institutes. At some point in this list further education begins to be indistinguishable from higher education, but before turning to this it may be as well to look more closely at the qualifications obtainable in technical colleges.

TECHNICAL QUALIFICATIONS

The qualifications awarded to students in the various colleges vary enormously. The principle behind all of them, however, is close collaboration with the profession, and sometimes trade union, concerned. Some of them are at present in the process of change, as will be seen.

National Certificates and Diplomas

The national certificates and diplomas were very broadly intended as technicians' qualifications. (A technician is qualified by specialist education and practical training to work under the direction of a qualified engineer or a qualified scientist. For example, he may assist in designing plant and equipment, in supervising the erection, construction, and maintenance of plant, or in inspecting, testing, or surveying.)

The certificates and diplomas are awarded by joint committees of the Department of Education and the professional association concerned: for example, the Institute of Mechanical Engineers for the certificate in mechanical engineering. The joint committees approve syllabuses drawn up by colleges submitting candidates and appoint assessors for the examinations, which are set and marked by the individual colleges. The

FURTHER EDUCATION

student's work throughout the course also counts towards his final result. Ordinary National Certificates (O.N.C.) are awarded to students who are at work but who attend part-time day or evening courses for three years. This probably means about five hours' attendance at college a week.

The Higher National Certificate (H.N.C.) is normally gained at the end of a further two years' part-time study and another two or three years' study may be needed to get complete exemption from professional examinations. The national certificates, in other words, can provide a part-time route to full status as, for example, a professional engineer. You can get an O.N.C. in eleven different subjects and H.N.C. in fifteen. There are certificates at both levels, for instance, in electrical engineering, chemistry, metallurgy, and building; and at H.N.C. only in production engineering and chemical engineering. In 1962 39,000 candidates entered for the O.N.C. final examinations and 20,000 of them passed. Under 17,000 entered for H.N.C. and 11,000 passed.

National diplomas (O.N.D. and H.N.D.) are similar to the national certificates but are taken after full-time courses lasting two or three years. You can take national diplomas in both levels in electrical and mechanical engineering and building, and at the higher level in, e.g., production engineering, mining, and applied chemistry. In 1962 there were 960 candidates for O.N.D. examinations, of whom 640 were successful. Nearly 1,300 candidates entered for H.N.D. examinations, of whom just over 1,000 were successful. Comparisons are obviously difficult but an O.N.C. or O.N.D. is roughly comparable in standard with G.C.E. A level and is taken at the same age or slightly older. H.N.C. and H.N.D. are perhaps roughly comparable with a pass degree.

Craft Courses

The technical colleges also help to train craft apprentices. Apprenticeship implies a bargain: the apprentice is paid a wage, he undertakes to learn, and his employer undertakes to teach him. Craft apprentices are indentured normally for five years and are then accepted as fully fledged members of a craft union.

Indeed 'craftsman' means nothing more than that a man is a member of a craft union: it tells us nothing about the amount of craft he has learned. Apprenticeship arrangements vary from firm to firm and from one part of the country to another. Attendance at a technical college is by no means essential to serving an apprenticeship. Over the country as a whole many firms will still not give apprentices day release for their studies. The colleges themselves tend to offer part-time craft courses leading either to the examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute or the Royal Society of Arts. The 'City and Guilds' was founded by the City livery companies late in the nineteenth century. For most crafts there are two certificates, newly named 'craft' and 'advanced craft'. Both are taken after part-time study, the first for two years and the second for a further two years.

New Developments

Early in 1961 the Ministry of Education published a White Paper under the title *Better Opportunities in Technical Education*. It would lead the way, said the Ministry, to a 'major reorganization of the system of courses for technicians, craftsmen, and operatives in technical colleges'. Briefly, the trouble with the national certificate courses was that although they were designed for the training of technicians, they increasingly came to be regarded as a way to professional status and to becoming a technologist for those who could not afford to go to university. The standards of the national certificate have been raised to keep pace with the entry standards of professional institutions. The courses have become too difficult for the people for whom they were intended and in fact the failure rates have been spectacular. Only about 10 per cent of those who started an O.N.C. course eventually got an H.N.C. On top of all this the professional institutions began to think that part-time study was no way to train technologists and so the national certificate system was not obviously suitable for anything at all.

It was this impasse, together with the obvious need to bring schools and technical colleges closer together and to reform craft apprenticeship training, which together gave rise to the

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White Paper. If all the reforms in it were carried out it would make a revolution in this level of technical education, but progress will be very patchy and piecemeal over the country for many years to come. In some ways, therefore, this description of what is expected from the changes may be somewhat idealistic.

The length of O.N.C. courses is being reduced from three years to two, and the standard of entry is comparable with four passes at G.C.E. O level. The main mode of entry will be by actually getting the four O levels but there will be two other methods. The first year of the old O.N.C. course will become the basis of a separate general course. A boy leaving secondary school after four years may take it in two years, one who stays at school for a fifth year may take it in one. The purpose of the course is diagnostic, and those who do well go on to take O.N.C. The third method of entry to an O.N.C. course will be by switching a promising craft apprentice to it after three years of his craft course. This new O.N.C. course trains high-level technicians and is a stepping stone to the diploma in technology.

There will be new courses for ordinary technicians. They will be modelled on ones already in existence for electrical technicians, telecommunications technicians, and for many mechanical engineering technicians – all run by City and Guilds. The White Paper simply said that there ought to be more of them. To take a technician course a boy leaving school at 15 would start at technical college on the new diagnostic general course and would either transfer after a year to his technician course or stay for the second year of the general course. If he did the latter he could qualify either for the first year of the O.N.C. or the second year of the technician course. A boy leaving school at 16 with four O levels might start at once on the technician course, otherwise he would take the general course first for a year. A general course for all engineering courses has been going for over two years. In July 1963 schemes for general courses in mining, construction, science, and shipbuilding were published, but there will be still some subjects left over. One barrier to further courses is that several industries have yet to make up their mind as to what courses they need.

At the craftsman level it is necessary to distinguish the craftsman clearly from the technician, to give a craftsman a course appropriate to his ability, and to provide for trainee operatives who may not be apprentices but who do need skill. At present no formal academic qualifications are required for craftsmen or trainee operatives, although the new Certificate of Secondary Education may be used to help in diagnosis. There have been several changes in the City and Guilds courses: three dozen have been revised since 1961. The average craft apprentice will aim at the 'craft' certificate and only the brighter boy at the 'advanced craft' one. Some courses for operatives already exist in chemicals and iron and steel, for example, and they are likely to become more numerous, mostly in the newer processing industries.

A final recommendation in the White Paper is that there should be closer association between schools and technical colleges. It is conceivable that in time the secondary modern school may work towards a technical college just as the grammar school sixth form works towards the university. If this actually happened it would demolish the conception of the secondary modern school evolved in 1944 and the years after and would be a major revolution in the organization of secondary and further education in this country.

(ii) HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education is not defined in the 1944 Act. Before 1944 it meant something quite different from what it means now. The most helpful way of defining it is to refer to the terms of reference of the Robbins Committee which was set up in 1961 'to review the pattern of full-time higher education'. It was specifically asked to cover universities, colleges of advanced technology, and teacher training colleges. The committee recognized that some part-time courses might give the chance of higher education to people who had missed it earlier. But we shall not go far wrong if we take higher education to mean education for people over 18 years old, normally full-time and normally leading to a degree or something very like it.

TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES

The courses at teacher training colleges are described on pages 61-2. It is probably enough to add here that there are 110 training institutions run by the local authorities, 49 run by voluntary bodies, and 27 by the universities. Of these, 124 are general colleges (77 of which are run by the local authorities) and the rest specialize in particular subjects: 11 in housecraft, 7 in physical education, 16 in art, and 4 in training technical teachers. Of the university institutions 24 are departments of education and 3 are art training centres. By the autumn of 1962 there were nearly 50,000 students in the training colleges, and will be 80,000 by 1970. Since 1960 the courses at all teachers' training colleges have been three years in length and the teachers' certificate which they offer is something like a university pass degree.

TECHNICAL COLLEGES

As we have seen, quite a bit of the work in technical colleges can be said to be called higher education. The H.N.D. and the H.N.C. are both of much the same standard as a university pass degree. (See also page 174.)

COLLEGES OF ADVANCED TECHNOLOGY

Colleges of advanced technology form the apex of the system of technical education. They started in 1956, when a number of technical colleges were designated as colleges of advanced technology by the Government. They were to offer technological education of a standard comparable with that obtainable at universities. The colleges themselves are older than many universities. They have shed all work of G.C.E. A level, O.N.C. level, and below, and are offering courses leading to degrees, to the diploma in technology, or comparable college or professional diplomas. Their minimum entry qualifications are the same as for universities. All of them are expanding rapidly, and in particular are building halls of residence for their students.

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They have been emancipated from the control of the local authorities and this year they will become, like the universities, autonomous institutions. The colleges are:

- Battersea College of Technology, London
- College of Advanced Technology, Birmingham
- Bradford Institute of Technology
- Bristol College of Science and Technology
- Brunel College of Technology, Acton, Middlesex.
- Chelsea College of Science and Technology, London
- Loughborough College of Technology
- Northampton College of Advanced Technology, London
- Royal College of Advanced Technology, Salford
- Welsh College of Advanced Technology, Cardiff.

The Diploma in Technology

The diploma in technology is of the same standing as an honours degree and is accepted as such by the universities, the professional institutions, and the Department of Education. You get first or second class honours or a pass. Preparation for it, however, is quite different. An essential feature of the course is that professional training in industry must be integrated with academic studies. This lengthens the course to at least four years. Another essential feature of the course is that it has built into it a course of general studies. This may include lectures and seminars on the social sciences, literature, and the fine arts, and an introduction to the problems of management. The combination of the specialized course with experience in industry and general studies gives the course the chance to be a better liberal education than many university degree courses.

The precise way academic work and professional training are related differs from college to college. The main pattern, particularly in engineering, is the 'sandwich' course: six months in college alternate with six months in industry over four or five years. There is also the full-time sandwich course of four years with one complete year in industry. A student may be either industry-based, i.e. the employee of an organization or firm, or college-based when he is supported by a local authority grant. In either case his curriculum is the same. Over 3,000 diplomas

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in technology have so far been awarded, a score of them to women, by the National Council for Technological Awards. When C.A.T.s become autonomous they will award their own degrees.

Other Awards

The National Council has also instituted its own higher award – Membership of the College of Technologists. This is similar to a Ph.D. in universities but as for the diploma the student must have a supervisor both from colleges and from his firm or industrial research organization. The colleges also prepare for university external degrees. Those in London have teachers recognized by London University and they prepare for internal London degrees. Altogether about 1,000 people each year get degrees from C.A.T.s and other technical colleges. (See also page 174.)

UNIVERSITIES

The universities of England and Wales are a very mixed bunch. Like Topsy, they just growed. The only generalization one can make is that students go to them at 18 after gaining two or more subject passes at A level, follow on average a three-year course and emerge with a 'degree'. The degree is granted by the university itself and not by an outside body. For convenience the universities can be grouped under six headings: Oxford and Cambridge, the Scottish universities, London, the federal universities, the civic universities, and the new universities.

Oxford and Cambridge

By far the oldest are Oxford and Cambridge, which started as guilds of teachers who settled in the two towns towards the end of the twelfth century. Foreign-born scholars were expelled from the University of Paris in 1167, and many of them settled in Oxford. There was a migration of scholars from Oxford to Cambridge in 1209. In the thirteenth century benefactors founded residential colleges or halls, first for scholars, then for scholar-teachers and students, and colleges have gone on being

founded right up to the present. There are now 26 colleges and 5 halls for men, and 5 colleges for women, at Oxford; there are 18 colleges and 1 'house' for men, and 2 colleges and 2 halls for women, at Cambridge. Most colleges have up to 300 undergraduates, but a few have very many more. It is the colleges which are the outstanding characteristics of Oxford and Cambridge. The university examines, confers degrees, provides the central libraries and laboratories and most of the lectures. Each college, however, is completely independent as far as its property, finance, and internal affairs are concerned, and it is by becoming a member of the college that the student becomes a member of the university. For some part of his university life he lives in college and dines regularly in hall. He can always use his college chapel, library, and Junior Common Room, and join college clubs and societies; and he is taught, supervised, and prepared for final degree examinations by the senior members or fellows of his college. Both Oxford and Cambridge have over 9,000 undergraduates.

Scottish Universities

Next in age are the Scottish universities. Three of them – St Andrews, Glasgow, and Aberdeen – date from the fifteenth century. A fourth, Edinburgh, was established in the sixteenth century. St Andrews and Aberdeen both now incorporate other foundations all dating from the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, but the collegiate system has never caught on as in England. The student in Scotland has been expected to find his own accommodation and cope with the hazards of digs. Glasgow and Edinburgh both have between 6,000 and 7,000 students: St Andrews and Aberdeen each have between 2,000 and 3,000 students. The Royal College of Technology, Glasgow, with 1,700 students, is being changed into the University of Strathclyde.

London

The University of London is the largest in the country: with over 22,000 students, it has two-thirds as many as all the civic

universities put together. It was established in the early nineteenth century as a protest against the denominational tests then imposed for entry into Oxford and Cambridge. From the middle of that century its degrees have been available for students other than those in recognized institutions, and these 'external' degrees still make possible an academic award of high standing for part-time students at home and abroad who are not at the university. London was also the first university in the kingdom to admit women to its degrees (in 1888). London contains three colleges – University College, King's College, and Queen Mary College – and two specialist schools – the Imperial College of Science and Technology and the London School of Economics – each as big as some of the civic universities; but these are only five of the fourteen non-medical colleges or schools of the university. There are thirteen medical schools associated with hospitals, a number of university institutes (of archaeology, of Commonwealth studies, of education, and so on), three theological schools, and a number of postgraduate medical schools. All these are incorporated in the federation which is the university and which acts as a teaching as well as an examining body.

Federal Universities

Durham was founded in 1832 and used to be a federal university containing Durham colleges and King's College, Newcastle-on-Tyne. Newcastle is now an independent university. From the beginning, Durham was influenced by the collegiate pattern of Oxford and Cambridge and eight of its halls of residence are colleges of the university. There are over 1,500 full-time students in Durham itself and over 4,000 in Newcastle. The University of Wales is also federal, consisting of the four university colleges at Aberystwyth, Cardiff, Bangor, and Swansea. The whole university has over 6,000 students.

Civic Universities

The civic universities, which together have well over 33,000 students, have emerged in their full status only in this century. The main idea behind their foundation was to set up centres of

higher education for the areas in which they were established. They were not residential on the Oxford and Cambridge pattern and even now few offer residential accommodation to more than a quarter of their undergraduates, even though these come from all over the country. Most of them started as colleges set up by communities or local individual benefactors. The first was Owen's College in Manchester (1851), followed by the Yorkshire College of Science in Leeds (1874), University College, Bristol (1876), colleges at Sheffield, Birmingham, Liverpool, Nottingham, Reading, Exeter, and, in the twentieth century, Southampton, Leicester, and Hull. Until they attained full university status these colleges prepared their students for external degrees of the University of London. At one moment it looked as though the colleges would be brought together in federations, but the trend was abruptly halted in 1900, when Birmingham got its own charter as a university.

Many of the colleges achieved full status only after the Second World War. There are about 5,000 students at Manchester and about 2,000 in the affiliated Manchester College of Science and Technology. Leeds, Birmingham, and Liverpool each have between 4,000 and 5,000; Bristol and Sheffield between 3,000 and 4,000, and Nottingham between 2,000 and 3,000. Hull, Reading, Southampton, Exeter, and Leicester have between 1,000 and 2,000.

New Universities

Many of the new universities have still to be built. The first was the University of Keele, founded as the University College of North Staffordshire in 1949. It is entirely residential and has under 700 students. The University of Sussex at Brighton gained its charter in 1961. Other universities are now started at York, Norwich, Colchester, and Lancaster and are planned for Canterbury and Coventry. It is too early to say precisely what the projected universities will be like, but both Keele and Sussex have differed radically from the existing universities in the organization of their curricula. Normally a university course involves three years' detailed study of one subject or a closely linked group of subjects. There are exceptions, of course: at

Cambridge it is possible to read one subject for the first part of the 'Tripos' and another for the second, and at Oxford the 'Greats' school involves philosophy and ancient history. At Keele a student can do nothing but a joint honours degree, that is a degree involving several subjects, one of which must be either an arts or a science subject. At Sussex, a student will not read his subject in a department (of say, French or Physics) but in a 'school' - of English studies, for example, or European studies, or social studies.

An Anomaly

The only other degree-giving institution in England and Wales is St David's College, Lampeter, in South Wales. It was established in 1882 and grants degrees in arts and theology. It is entirely residential and has about 200 students. After a period of calculated neglect by the University Grants Committee there now seems to be a change of heart and presumably St. David's will expand with all the other universities.

Independence and Money

All the universities are independent and self-governing. Oxford and Cambridge are governed entirely by members of the university, and each college is a self-governing corporate body. In other universities the governing bodies include lay members elected as representatives of outside bodies. Well over two-thirds of the income of the universities comes from Parliamentary grants, something over a tenth from students' fees (three-quarters of which are paid by the local education authorities), less than a tenth from payments for work done by universities, and the rest from endowments, grants from local authorities, donations, and other sources. The money from Parliamentary grants (some £90m. in 1962-3) is distributed through the University Grants Committee after consultation with the universities. This means that the universities are not directly responsible to the Secretary of State for Education or to any other Minister though the Secretary of State does answer general questions about them in Parliament. Until recently the universities had virtually no connexion with the old Minister of

Education. The U.G.C. distributed grants directly from the Exchequer, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer answered Parliamentary questions about the universities. The realization, early in 1962, that the Chancellor was quite capable of cutting back future university expansion and delaying increases in salaries led to some quite vocal doubts about this. The change to the present arrangements was recommended by the Robbins Committee on Higher Education. (See also page 174.)

University Degrees

Like everything else in higher education the nomenclature of degrees is confusing. In most universities B.A. (Bachelor of Arts) and B.Sc. (Bachelor of Science) degrees are first degrees in arts and science respectively. At Oxford and Cambridge, however, you get a B.A. regardless of whether you study arts or science, and in Scotland the first arts degree is called M.A. (Master of Arts). There is no B.Sc. at Cambridge and at Oxford the B.Sc. is a higher degree. In most universities M.A.s are higher degrees involving further study and another examination. But at Oxford and Cambridge any B.A. can get an M.A. degree simply by paying for it. For the sake of clarity, therefore, it is best to describe the degrees without calling them by particular names. One must distinguish, from the start, between first degrees and higher degrees.

First Degrees

To get a first degree you have to put in full-time attendance at a university (unless you are a candidate for a London University external degree or are an evening student at Birkbeck College, London) for at least three years. For some courses the period is longer: in architecture it may be five years and in medicine six. In some courses you may get exemption from the first year by success at G.C.E. A level, but three years is the minimum nevertheless. Normally students do not change universities in mid-course.

There are two kinds of first degree: pass, ordinary or general, and honours or special. A pass degree involves the study of a number of subjects not all of which are pursued for the full

three years and in none of which is there a high amount of specialization. Success depends on passing the various subjects separately at the appropriate standard, and if you fail any one subject you can take it again or substitute another. The honours degree concentrates on a single field of study and its related subjects. Normally the field of specialization is mentioned: you get an honours degree in history, physics, and so on. Success depends on performance in a comprehensive final examination which can be taken only once. Degrees awarded are of first-second, third, or fourth class, and sometimes the second class is divided into two sections - 2:1 and 2:2. If you fail you are given either a pass degree or some credit towards getting one. Just to confuse the issue still further, there are a few universities (particularly the oldest and the newest) which offer joint honours degrees in which you take more than one subject but go into each no less deeply, though perhaps less comprehensively, than in a single honours degree. Normally it is clear from the start of your course whether you are going to do an honours or a pass degree, but in some cases the two courses are very similar in the early years, and in medicine the final examination is a common one in which outstanding candidates may be awarded honours.

Higher Degrees

Higher degrees may be divided into three groups: masterships, the doctorate in philosophy, and the senior doctorates. Candidates for a master's degree (at Oxford and Cambridge these are called B.Phil., B.Litt. or something similar, because the M.A. is what you pay for) normally must already have a good first degree. The course normally takes two years and involves writing a thesis or dissertation on a particular topic. Sometimes a written examination is required as well and there is almost always an oral examination. The doctorate in philosophy, so called whatever your subject, also needs a first degree before you start and is given more often after three years' extra work. You have to write a thesis which makes an original contribution to knowledge. The senior doctorates, the names of which alone depend on a particular subject studied, like D.Litt.,

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D.Sc., require at least a master's degree before you start and are awarded on the basis of published contributions to knowledge.

In most universities external examiners from other universities are brought in to help assess work offered for all degrees. At Oxford and Cambridge the examining is done internally by panels of tutors from the various colleges. University diplomas and certificates are rather more simple affairs, may be full-time or part-time, and may take normally one or two years.

THE ROBBINS COMMITTEE

The Robbins Committee on Higher Education reported in the autumn of 1963. Several of its recommendations – particularly for the expansion of higher education – have been accepted by the Government. In addition, the colleges of advance technology are to receive university status: they will be autonomous, get their money from the U.G.C. and award their own degrees. The position of teacher training colleges is still being discussed.

With the autonomy of the C.A.T.s, the National Council for Technological Awards will have fewer candidates (at least at first) for its diploma in technology. But it is to be expanded into a Council for National Academic Awards, granting degrees in all fields of study to students successfully completing recognized courses of higher education in non-autonomous institutions – like the regional, area, and local technical colleges.

APPENDIX ONE

Books and Publications

Probably the best way to keep abreast of what is going on in education is to read periodicals rather than books. There are three educational journals generally available on bookstalls. They are *The Times Educational Supplement* (6d.), *Education* – the official journal of the Association of Education Committees (9d.), and *The Teacher* – the journal of the *National Union of Teachers* (6d.). Another weekly publication, *New Society* (1s.), also covers education fairly fully.

For specific information, go to reference books. The most compendious is the *Education Committees' Year Book*. Universities are covered by the *Commonwealth Universities' Year Book* and the publications of the Universities Central Council on Admissions. Independent schools are listed in *The Public and Preparatory Schools' Year Book*, *The Girls' School Year Book*, and *The Independent Schools' Association Year Book*. Independent schools recognized as efficient are listed in the Department of Education's *List 70*. *The Year Book of Technical Education and Careers in Industry* covers the scientific and technical sides of further and higher education, and the *Handbook on Training for Teaching* covers training colleges and departments and institutes of education.

The publications of the Department of Education are a quarry of information: there are innumerable lists, reports, and pamphlets, most of which are noticed in the national press as they emerge. The Department's *Annual Report* is a good, brisk (though normally rather complacent), guide to what is going on, and its statistics are published separately.

In a class by itself is *The New Law of Education* by Wells and Taylor. The history of education in England and Wales, the present legal framework, and all the relevant regulations, circulars, and memoranda are extremely well edited. The commentary is exceptionally clear and well written.

If you still want more, have a look at George Baron's *A Bibliographical Guide to the English Educational System*, which lists about 600 books under their subject headings and gives a sentence or two of description for each.

APPENDIX TWO

Educational Organizations

Education bristles with organizations: about 500 of them are listed in the back of the *Education Committees' Year Book*. A few relevant ones may be mentioned here.

PARENTS' ORGANIZATIONS

Advisory Centre for Education, 57 Russell Street, Cambridge.
Confederation for the Advancement of State Education, 277 Trinity Road, London sw18.
Council for Children's Welfare, 54 Platt's Lane, London nw3.
National Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations, 127 Herbert Gardens, London nw10.
National Society for Mentally Handicapped Children, 5 Bulstrode Street, London w1.
Parents' National Educational Union, Murray House, Vandon Street, London sw1.
Pre-School Play-groups Association, 76 Headstone Lane, North Harrow, Middlesex.

TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS

Schools

Joint Committee of the Four Secondary Associations, 29 Gordon Square, London wc1 (Association of Headmistresses Incorporated, Incorporated Association of Headmasters, Association of Assistant Mistresses Incorporated, Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters).
National Association of Head Teachers, 59 Victoria Road, Surbiton, Surrey.
National Association of Schoolmasters, 59 Gordon Square, London wc1.
National Union of Teachers, Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London wc1.

APPENDIX TWO

Further and Higher Education

Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education,
151 Gower Street, London WC1.

Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions, Hamilton House,
Mabledon Place, London WC1.

Association of University Teachers, 21 Dawson Place, London W2.

AUTHORITIES' ORGANIZATIONS

Association of Education Committees, 10 Queen Anne Street, London
W1.

Association of Municipal Corporations, Victoria Station House,
Victoria Street, London SW1.

County Councils Association, 66a Eaton Square, London SW1.

National Association of Divisional Executives for Education, Education
Offices, Spring Garden Lane, Gosport, Hampshire.

Welsh Joint Education Committee, 30 Cathedral Road, Cardiff.

APPENDIX THREE

Officials of an Education Authority

A typical large English education authority has the following senior officials :

A chief education officer ; 2 deputy chief education officers ; 2 assistant education officers ; a chief county inspector and 6 county inspectors ; organizers for art (2), domestic science (2), drama, handicrafts (2), music (2), physical education (2), school meals, science (3) and visual and aural aids ; a county librarian ; a county youth officer ; a principal school medical officer* ; a psychologist to the education committee ; a county architect* ; a county treasurer* and a county supplies officer*. The officials marked * are shared with the other departments of the authority.

This particular authority has an education committee of 41 elected members of the council, 13 representatives of divisional executives, and 17 other people selected for their special knowledge. They meet seven times a year, on Mondays.

The population of the county is nearly two million and the product of a penny rate is over £346,000. There are three nursery schools, 734 primary schools, 217 secondary schools, 6 technical colleges and 3 colleges of further education, 2 residential youth centres, 4 schools of art and 1 residential college for adults. There are also 16 day and 6 residential special schools, and one hospital special school.

APPENDIX FOUR

What a Local Authority Spends

Every year each local education authority has to estimate its coming annual expenditure. It does this on a form - Form 501F - which it sends to the Department of Education. The form is in two parts and is reproduced here. The figures are entered to illustrate the expenditure of a typical authority: those used here are taken, with kind permission, from an example given by Mr. J. R. Sampson in his study booklet *Educational Finance*, published by the joint committee of students' societies of the Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants. (They do not include expenditure on school meals and milk, which are not covered by the General Grant.)

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION - FORM 501 F

Local Education Authority.....

**ESTIMATED NET EXPENDITURE FOR 1961-62 ON
EDUCATION SERVICES COVERED BY GENERAL
PART I GRANT**

	<i>Net Expenditure £</i>
1. Nursery Schools	3,500
2. Primary Schools	3,145,690
3. Secondary Schools	3,526,735
4. Special Schools	115,135
5. Further Education (including Agricultural Education)	
(a) Advanced	(gross £98,170) 91,300
(b) Non-advanced	(gross £532,770) 434,180
6. Training of Teachers	
(a) Maintenance of Colleges and Hostels	47,750
(b) Assistance to Recognized Students	21,570
(c) Salaries etc. of Teachers Seconded	6,250
(d) Other	—
7. Medical Inspection and Treatment	221,210
8. Recreation and Social and Physical Training	
(a) Youth Service	43,200
(b) Other	20,700
9. Aid to Pupils	
(a) University Awards	217,550
(b) Further Education Awards	
(i) for degree courses or equivalent	36,500
(ii) for other courses	62,470
(c) Fees for pupils receiving special educational treatment	96,400
(d) Fees for other pupils at Independent and Direct Grant Schools	34,840
(e) Maintenance allowances to school pupils over compulsory school age	10,700
(f) Other awards or grants	49,030
10. Administration and Inspection	362,170
11. Transport of pupils between home and school	237,150
12. Miscellaneous	13,615
13. Loan Charges	
(a) Primary	314,800
(b) Secondary	632,145
(c) Further Education (including Agricultural Education)	125,230
(d) Training of Teachers	—
(e) Other	10,285
14. Capital Expenditure from Revenue—	
(a) Physical Assets	
(i) Primary	100,000
(ii) Secondary	108,335
(iii) Other	41,665
(b) Apportioned Charges for services of Architect's Department where not charged to loan	51,000
15. Sub-total	10,181,105
16. Adjustments with other Local Education Authorities	374,675
17. Total	10,555,780
Estimated amount included above in respect of pupils not belonging to the area of any authority	£
(1) Primary and Secondary education (calculated in accord- with Part C of the 3rd Report of the Inter-Authority Payments Committee)	28,530
(2) Further Education (excluding provision of advanced further education in maintained or assisted institutions.) (Full cost)	6,350

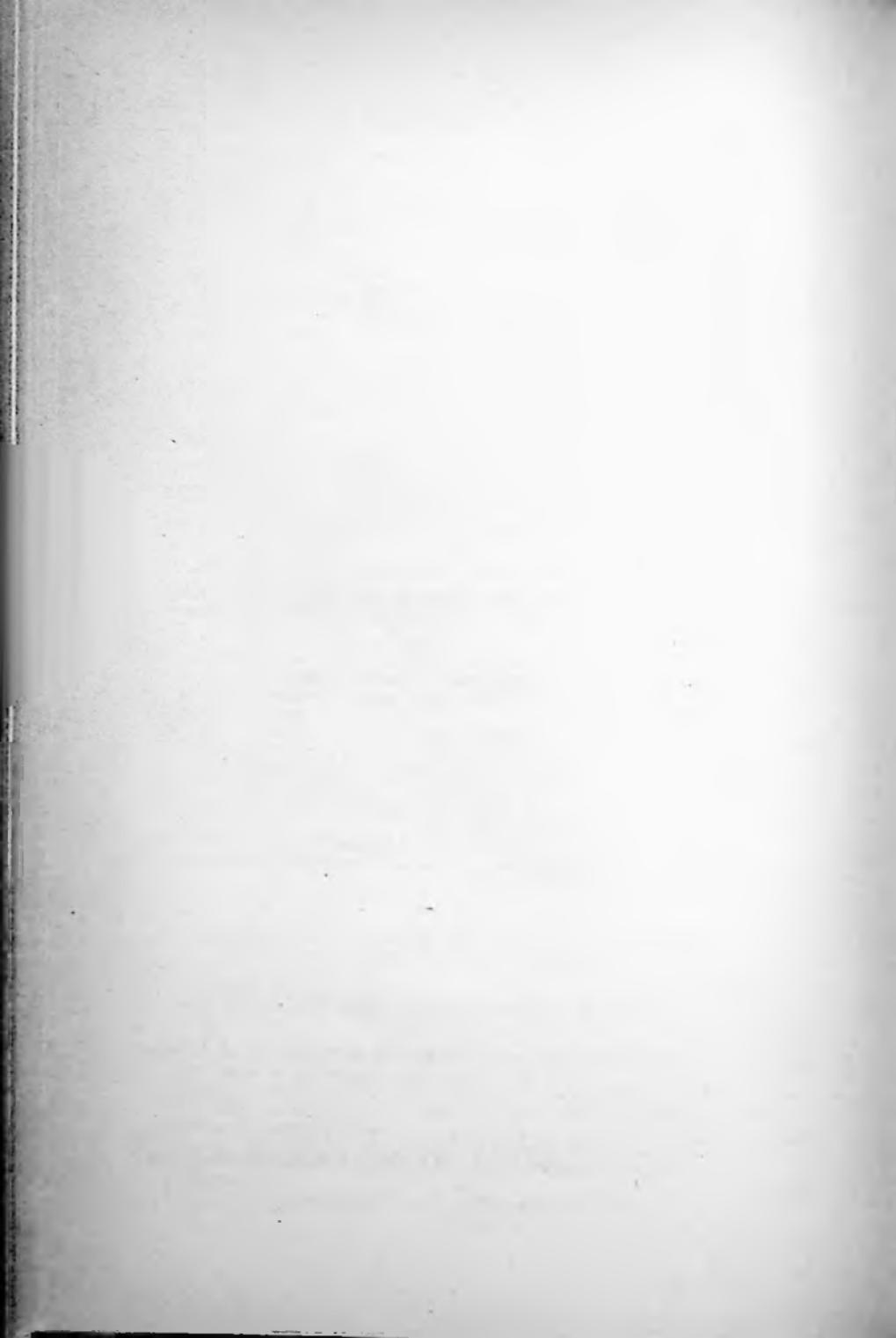
Part II

(A) The net expenditure overleaf includes the following amounts in respect of Teachers' Salaries (Contributory and Non-Contributory) and Employer's Contributions under the Teachers (Superannuation) Acts, in schools and institutions maintained AND ASSISTED by the Authority.

	<i>Teachers' Salaries</i>	<i>Employer's Contributions Under T(S) Acts</i>
1. Nursery schools .. .	£ 1,735	£ 105
2. Primary Schools .. .	2,104,765	123,295
3. Secondary Schools .. .	2,275,240	131,515
4. Special Schools .. .	43,370	2,555
5. Further Education (including Agricultural Education)		
(a) Advanced .. .	44,560	2,310
(b) Non-advanced .. .	240,840	8,595
6. Training Colleges .. .	—	—
7. Teachers seconded for further training .. .	18,080	1,080
8. Other .. .	11,330	3,130
TOTALS ..	4,739,920	272,585

(B) Expenditure on other Salaries and Wages included overleaf (including apportionments in respect of employees in central administrative departments).

	<i>Administrative, Professional, Technical and Officers</i>	<i>Grades, Clerical</i>	<i>£</i>
1. Chief Officers, Deputy Chief Officers, Lettered Officers	213,805
2. Inspectors, Organizers, Youth Leaders, etc.	69,290
3. Doctors and Dentists	83,015
4. Nursing staff	24,170
5. Manual Workers	431,390
6. Others	177,350
TOTAL ..			999,020



Glossary of Educational Terms

Parents often feel at a disadvantage when talking about education, because education, like any other subject, has its own specialized vocabulary and jargon. This guide does not claim to be complete but it does contain most of the expressions which educationists are constantly using and which are often puzzling to the ordinary parent. Precise and accurate definitions of the expressions would be longer, more complicated and much less comprehensible than anything in this guide. Many of them occur in the course of this book. The object of the guide is to help to explain rather than to define.

adult education: Spare-time study for adults (usually by evening classes) run by local education authorities, universities, and voluntary bodies like the Workers' Educational Association (W.E.A.).

agreed syllabus: Syllabus (q.v.) of religious instruction (q.v.) agreed between representatives of a local education authority, religious denominations, and teachers.

aided school: Voluntary school (q.v.) whose governors or managers are responsible for the provision and maintenance of the premises, can appoint and dismiss staff and decide the religious teaching. Almost all aided schools are C. of E. or R.C.

all-age school: School which takes children from 5 to 15. Many village schools were of this type: they are gradually disappearing.

apprenticeship: Organized scheme of training at work for a specific number of years, leading to acceptance into a recognized trade.

arts subjects: School or university subjects, like languages and history, which are not scientific: not to be confused with the arts, like music and painting.

assistant master (mistress, teacher): Anyone on the teaching staff of a school who is not the head teacher.

award: see scholarship.

backwardness: General term to describe the condition of those children who are for any reason noticeably less developed than their contemporaries.

bilateral school: Secondary school (q.v.) which is in effect a combination of two schools (e.g. grammar/technical or technical/modern).

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bipartite system: Description of secondary education as divided between secondary modern and grammar schools (c.f. tripartite system).

boarding school: School whose pupils live on the premises either for whole terms or for shorter periods like a week.

'bulge', the: Jargon for the increased number of pupils passing through the schools on account of the sharp rise in the birth rate after the war. Another, and continuing, rise began in the late fifties.

Burnham committee: Committee, consisting of representatives of the teachers and the local education authorities, which agrees teachers' salaries. A place for the Secretary of State is being discussed.

bursary: Award similar to a scholarship (q.v.).

Central Advisory Councils: Two bodies (one for England, one for Wales) set up by law to advise the Minister of Education on educational theory and practice.

chief education officer: Chief permanent, paid official of a local education authority. May also be known as director of education, secretary for education, or simply education officer.

child guidance clinic: Centre run by the local education or other authority to treat maladjustment (q.v.) in children.

child psychiatrist: see psychiatrist.

City and Guilds of London Institute: Largest of the independent examining bodies in technical education.

civic university: University founded in large town originally as a centre of higher education for the area.

class: (1) Group of pupils in a school taking lessons together (see also form, set, stream, year). (2) Standard gained in an honours degree (q.v.).

classics, the: (1) Latin and Greek. (2) Literary works in any language, or musical compositions, permanently judged outstanding.

closed scholarship: see scholarship.

co-education: Education of boys and girls in the same school or classes.

college: Corporate body which may or may not be part of a university (q.v.) (see also technical college, college of further education, training college, theological college, and college of advanced technology).

college of advanced technology (C.A.T.): Technical college concentrating entirely on work at graduate, post-graduate, and research levels.

college of further education: College, roughly comparable in standard with a local technical college (q.v.), offering part-time and evening courses leading to G.C.E. or technical qualifications or leisure pursuits.

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college-based student: Student doing a 'sandwich' course (q.v.) who is enrolled by a college and placed by it in industry for his periods of practical work.

collegiate university: University, like Oxford or London, made up of constituent colleges.

Common Entrance Examination: Selection examination organized on behalf of many of the public schools to determine suitability for admission to such schools at about the age of 13. Also sometimes applied to the 11+ examination (q.v.).

commoner: Student at Oxford or Cambridge who has not won a college scholarship (q.v.) or exhibition (q.v.) (though he may hold a scholarship from his local authority).

comprehensive school: Secondary school (q.v.) which takes all the children from a particular area and offers all kinds of courses.

controlled school: Voluntary school (q.v.) for which the local education authority is financially responsible and appoints most of the teachers, but in which the governors or managers have the right to appoint a limited number of teachers who will give special religious instruction. Nearly all controlled schools are C. of E.

county award: Award to a student by the local education authority. May be a scholarship (q.v.), exhibition (q.v.), or bursary (q.v.).

county college: Institution envisaged in the 1944 Education Act (though none is yet built) to give mainly non-vocational education (q.v.) one day a week to boys and girls between 15 and 18 who have left school.

Council for National Academic Awards: Successor to the National Council for Technological Awards, awarding degrees to students in non-autonomous institutions of higher education.

county organizer: Officer of a local education authority responsible for promoting a particular subject (e.g. drama or physical education) in the authority's schools.

county school: School which is built, maintained, and staffed by the local education authority (q.v.). Its full cost falls on public funds.

crèche: Day nursery (q.v.).

curriculum: Plan of lessons and subjects taken by a class (q.v.) or school (q.v.).

Dalton plan: Way of arranging school work so that pupils can spend much time in private study.

day continuation school: Institution giving continued education for young workers released for that purpose by their employers.

day nursery: Place where babies and young children may be left while

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their parents are at work. Not to be confused with a nursery school (q.v.), a day nursery is supervised by the health authority, not the education authority.

day-release: System whereby employers allow days, or parts of days, off for education without loss of pay.

day-school: School whose pupils attend only during working hours and return home every evening.

degree: Qualification given by a university. The bachelor's, or first, degree (e.g. B.A.) can be of two kinds: an honours degree and an ordinary or pass degree. The former is usually of a higher and more specialized standard than the latter and there are normally several classes (q.v.) according to merit.

Department of Education and Science: Government department responsible for education in England and Wales and for universities in Great Britain.

deprived: Expression for a child who lacks something essential for his development, like a home background or mother love.

deputy headmaster (headmistress, head teacher): Assistant master (q. v.), of a school appointed as next in status to head teacher.

diploma in technology: Award given by the National Council for Technological Awards comparable with a university honours degree (q.v.). but see also page 174.

direct grant school: Independent school (q.v.) receiving a grant direct from the Ministry of Education subject to special conditions, notably that 25 per cent of the places each year shall be offered, either directly or through the local education authority, to pupils who have at any time previously attended a state school for not less than two years. Half the places may be available for fee-payers.

direct method: Way of teaching languages by concentrating on using them in conversation rather than on formal grammar.

divisional executive for education: Body to whom a local education authority has delegated some of its functions so as to use local knowledge and initiative. Divisional executives for boroughs of over 60,000 people are called excepted districts – excepted because they framed their own schemes of divisional administration.

don: Comprehensive expression for any senior member (teacher) of a university or college, e.g. a fellow (q.v.) or tutor (q.v.).

Education Act, 1944: Principal Act which regulates the present state system of education and provides for the inspection of independent schools.

GLOSSARY

education committee: Committee composed of members of the local education authority (q.v.) and co-opted experts to which all educational matters are referred, usually for decision and report, but for recommendation in major questions of policy.

education welfare officer: Originally a school attendance officer, whose main duty was to help to ensure school attendance, he is now much more engaged with the welfare problems of schoolchildren.

educational psychologist: Man or woman who studies human behaviour and the human mind in order to deal with the problems of children and sometimes their teachers.

educational subnormal (E.S.N.): Expression to describe children whose I.Q. (q.v.) is between about fifty and about eighty, and who therefore require special educational treatment, either in ordinary or in special (E.S.N.) schools.

efficient: see recognized as efficient.

eleven+ examination: Device, which varies from one local authority to another, for selecting children for the secondary schools available. May include any or all of the following: reports from primary school head teachers, intelligence tests (q.v.), tests in English and arithmetic, interviews, statement of parental choice.

evening institute: Establishment for further education (q.v.) having no day-time session and perhaps housed in premises used during the day as an ordinary day school.

examinations: see under individual types, e.g. eleven+, group, internal, etc.

exhibition: Award similar to a scholarship (q.v.).

external examination: Examination set by some body outside the school or college attended by the candidates.

extra-mural department (usually of a university): Department which organizes courses for those who are not members of the parent organization.

federal university: University formally made up of colleges and other bodies.

fellow: Senior member of a college or learned society.

first degree: see degree.

form: (1) Another name for a class (e.g. form 5b). (2) Another name for an age-group (e.g. fifth form).

form entry: Method of describing the size of a school by the number of forms (or classes) admitted each year. Thus a two-form entry school may have sixty to eighty new pupils each year divided into two forms.

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free activity period: Part of school day in which children are encouraged to decide for themselves what they will do.

free periods: (1) Time in a school curriculum for private or unsupervised study. (2) Time when a teacher is not allocated to a class.

Froebel method: System of education pioneered by Froebel emphasizing educational play for young children.

further education: Education (full-time or part-time) after leaving school for young people and adults, not including higher education (q.v.).

General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.): Certificate awarded on the results of external examinations (q.v.) set by nine examining bodies in England and Wales. Most candidates are pupils at secondary schools. It has two levels: (1) ordinary (O) level is normally taken at 16 after a five-year course. (2) Advanced (A) level is normally taken two years after O level at the end of a sixth-form course (q.v.) Candidates for A level may also take 'scholarship' papers in their chosen subjects: these papers are designed to test more than simply factual knowledge. Specified passes at O and A level exempt holders from entrance examinations to universities and professional bodies.

general science: School subject which covers usually physics, chemistry, and biology.

Girls' Public Day School Trust (G.P.D.S.T.): Trust set up to give secondary education for girls. Has some two dozen schools.

governors, board of: Body to whom the head teacher of a school is responsible. In independent schools they are self-appointing or are appointed by the terms of a trust deed. In state schools they are appointed by the local education authority in accordance with an instrument of government. The governing body of a primary school are called managers (q.v.).

graduate: Person who has a university degree (q.v.).

grammar school: Secondary school for more 'academic' pupils who are usually selected after an eleven + examination (q.v.).

group examination: Examination in which a given number of subjects are compulsory and have to be passed at the same time.

hall of residence: Large house or block to accommodate students at a university (q.v.) or college (q.v.).

head boy (head girl): Leader of a school's prefects (q.v.).

head of department: Person in a school or university responsible for organizing the teaching of a particular subject.

GLOSSARY

headmaster (headmistress, head teacher): Person in charge of an individual school, responsible to the governors or managers (q.v.), and in state schools to the local education authority.

Headmasters' Conference (H.M.C.): Body of headmasters of boys' public schools (q.v.) who themselves elect new members on the basis of the size of schools and their sixth forms, their academic achievement and their amount of independence.

Her Majesty's inspector (H.M.I.): official attached to the Department of Education who inspects state and independent schools and makes reports. There are about 550 H.M.I.s in England and Wales.

high school: Loose term for a secondary school, usually a grammar school (in the U.S.A. a high school is a secondary school).

higher education: Education (usually full-time) beyond secondary school level, usually at a university (q.v.), college of advanced technology (q.v.), or training college (q.v.).

Higher National Certificate, Diploma: see national certificate, diploma.

honours degree: see degree.

Incorporated Association of Preparatory Schools (I.A.P.S.): Association of preparatory schools (q.v.) which are recognized as efficient (q.v.) by the Department of Education.

independent school: School outside the state system run solely by its own proprietor or governing body (but see direct-grant school).

infant school: Primary school for children from about 5 to 7 or 8.

inspector: see Her Majesty's inspector.

intelligence: Mental efficiency.

intelligence quotient (I.Q.): Percentage that the mental age (q.v.) is of the chronological age (e.g. a child of 8 with a mental age of 10 will have an I.Q. of $\frac{10}{8} \times 100$, which is 125). The I.Q. is a measurement of intelligence.

intelligence test: Test designed to assess mental efficiency.

internal examination: Examination set by the school or college attended by the candidates.

junior school: (1) Primary school for children from about 8 to 11. (2) Department of an independent school taking children under about 13.

late developer: Term used to describe a child whose mental capacity matures notably later than that of most children. Often used of a pupil who shows more evidence of high ability than was apparent at 11+.

GLOSSARY

lecturer: (1) Anyone who lectures or delivers a talk to a group. (2) Member of the staff of a university or college.

Leicestershire experiment: Method of organizing secondary education being tried by Leicestershire in which all children go to the same secondary schools at 11+ and can then choose whether they will go to grammar schools at 13+.

liberal studies: Subjects designed to broaden the general education of pupils specializing (q.v.) in science or technical subjects.

local education authority (L.E.A.): County or county-borough council so called because it is responsible for education in its area (see education committee).

lower school: Usually the first and second forms of a school. A grammar school (q.v.) expression.

main school: All the forms in a grammar school (q.v.) other than the sixth form (q.v.).

maintained school: School maintained by a local education authority, including county (q.v.), voluntary aided (q.v.), voluntary controlled (q.v.), and special-agreement (q.v.) schools. Called state school in this book.

maladjustment: Expression for the state of a child who is emotionally disturbed.

managers: People who compose the governing body of a state primary school (see 'governors'). Appointed by the local education authority in accordance with an instrument of management. In a voluntary school (q.v.) some of the managers are appointed by the voluntary body responsible.

matriculation: Minimum entrance requirement of universities.

means test: Scale by which a parent's income is measured for the purpose of making a grant.

mental age: The age at which the average child can pass the tests that a particular child passes is the latter's mental age (e.g. a child of 5 who is able to pass tests as well as the average child of 10 is said to have a mental age of 10).

middle school: Usually the third and fourth forms of a school. A grammar school (q.v.) expression.

'mock' G.C.E.: An internal examination (q.v.) run by some schools as a rehearsal for the normal G.C.E. examinations (q.v.).

monitor: (1) Pupil, usually in an individual class, who is made responsible for a particular job (e.g. milk monitor, attendance monitor). (2) Similar to a prefect (q.v.) in some schools.

GLOSSARY

Montessori method: System of education pioneered by Maria Montessori, laying special emphasis on freedom, self-education, and sense and muscle training.

multilateral school: Secondary school which provides grammar, technical, and secondary modern education in separately organized divisions.

national certificate: Technical certificate awarded by a joint committee of the Department of Education and the appropriate professional body (e.g. Institute of Mechanical Engineers). There are two levels of examination: Ordinary (O.N.C.), awarded after three years' part-time study and concurrent employment at, say, 19 and roughly comparable with G.C.E. A level (q.v.) and Higher (H.N.C.) awarded after a further two years' part-time study and roughly comparable with an ordinary degree (q.v.).

national college: see technical college.

National Council for Technological Awards: Body awarding the diploma in Technology (q.v.) and membership of the College of Technologists.

national diploma: Similar to national certificate (q.v.) – there are ordinary and higher grades, O.N.D. and H.N.D. – but awarded after two or three years' full-time study.

non-vocational study: Education not directed towards a job or career.

nursery school: School for children under 5.

old boy (old girl): A former pupil of a school.

open scholarship: see scholarship.

Ordinary National Certificate, Diploma: see national certificate diploma.

organizer: see county organizer.

out-of-school activity: Pursuit which takes place in a school outside formal lessons (e.g. debating or dramatics).

oversize class: No primary school class should contain more than forty pupils and no secondary class more than thirty, according to the Schools Regulations: the classes that do contain more than these numbers are oversize.

Oxbridge: Omnibus word for the universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

paediatrician: Person who specializes in the study of children.

paediatrics: Study of children.

GLOSSARY

parent-teacher association: Voluntary association of the parents and teachers of a school.

Part III (of the Education Act, 1944): The section of the Act which deals with the registration and inspection of independent schools.

pass degree: see degree.

physical education (P.E.): Current term for what most parents remember as 'gym' or P.T.

play way: Method of educating young children through guided educational play.

post-graduate: After a university first degree (q.v.) – an expression used either of a student or of his studies.

prefect: Pupil (usually an older pupil) who has some responsibility for discipline in a school.

preparatory school: Independent school for children between 8 and 13 which normally prepares pupils for public schools (q.v.).

pre-preparatory school: Independent school for children under about 8.

previous examination: The minimum entrance requirement at Cambridge.

primary school: School for children under 12.

private school: Independent school which is privately owned and not a public school (q.v.).

progressive school: Name applied to an independent school, often co-educational, with comparatively free discipline or a certain amount of self-government by the pupils.

project: Study undertaken by a class (or on occasions even by a whole school) on one broad subject (say, the neighbourhood) through which the normal school subjects are studied.

provincial university: Slightly pejorative expression for a university in England and Wales outside London, except Oxford and Cambridge.

psychiatrist: Qualified doctor who specializes in the treatment of disorders of the mind. A child psychiatrist is one who further specializes in treating children.

psychiatry: Medical treatment of disorders of behaviour and disorders of the mind.

psycho-analyst: Psychiatrist who has specialized in one form of treatment – psychotherapy (q.v.) – and who accepts the teachings of Sigmund Freud or one of his disciples.

psychologist: Man or woman concerned with the scientific study of human behaviour. See also educational psychologist.

psychology: Science of human behaviour and the human mind.

GLOSSARY

psychotherapy: Persistent exploration of a patient's mental processes in order to help him towards better social and personal adjustment.

public school: Independent, direct grant, or other secondary school controlled by a governing body created by some statute, scheme, or trust deed (c.f. private school).

pupil-teacher ratio: Average number of pupils to a teacher in a school.

qualified teacher: Teacher who has successfully taken a course at a training college or university department of education, has been awarded the Teacher's Certificate, and granted qualified teacher status by the Department of Education. A graduate can at present be granted this status without training.

read: (1) To recognize and understand written words and sentences.
(2) To study a subject at university.

reading age: The age at which the average child can read as well as a particular child can is the latter's reading age (e.g. a child of 4 who can read as well as the average child of 6 is said to have a reading age of 6).

recognized as efficient (by the Department of Education): All independent schools must be registered with the Department of Education, which lays down minimum standards, but they can apply to be recognized as efficient also: this is a much more strenuous test, and recognition gives the school the positive mark of the Department's approval.

redbrick universities: Pejorative term used to describe universities in England and Wales other than Cambridge, Durham, London, Oxford, and some of the new universities.

religious instruction (R.I.): The only subject which state schools are obliged to teach by law: in county (q.v.) and voluntary controlled schools (q.v.) it is given in accordance with an 'agreed syllabus' (q.v.) and parents may withdraw their children from it if they wish. In voluntary aided schools (q.v.) it is under the control of the managers (q.v.) or governors (q.v.).

remedial class: Class (usually quite small) for children who are backward (q.v.) in some way or who need special help.

responsions: Minimum entrance requirement for Oxford.

retarded: Backward (q.v.).

'sandwich' course: Advanced course involving alternate periods (usually of six months) of theoretical training in a technical college and of practical training in industry.

GLOSSARY

scholarship: (1) Name sometimes still given to the 11+ examination (q.v.). (2) Award – of money – given to a student either from public or from private funds. A ‘closed’ scholarship is one which is confined to stated groups of people (e.g. the sons of clergymen or the children of a particular area). An ‘open’ scholarship may be entered for by anyone.

school: (1) Building in which children are taught. (2) The people (teachers and pupils) who use a particular school building. (3) see under different types (e.g. primary, grammar, voluntary). (4) Subject to be studied for a degree (q.v.) at university (q.v.) – e.g. the honours school of modern history (see ‘read’).

school-leaving age: Age at which compulsory education ends. At present it is the leaving date (Easter or Summer) after a pupil’s fifteenth birthday.

secondary modern school: One of the largest groups of secondary schools, offering a general education to children who have not been selected for another type of school after an 11+ examination (q.v.).

secondary school: School for children aged 11 and over.

selective school: School for which the pupils have been selected (usually at 11+) on the grounds that they can benefit from a more ‘academic’ education. See grammar and technical schools.

senior master (mistress, teacher): Teacher ranking next to deputy head-master (q.v.), or, where there is no deputy, to the head (q.v.).

setting: Division of an age-group which is already divided into forms (q.v.) into different ‘sets’ according to ability for some subjects (e.g. a boy in the fourth year may be in form 4b, the top set for mathematics and the bottom set for French).

sixth form: Upper part of a grammar or technical school entered usually after taking G.C.E. O level (q.v.) at 16.

special-agreement school: Voluntary school (q.v.) similar to an aided school (q.v.).

special school: Primary or secondary school for pupils who need special treatment because of some mental or physical handicap or some maladjustment.

special (E.S.N.) school: Special school for educationally subnormal (q.v.) children.

specialist teacher: Teacher who teaches almost exclusively in one subject for which he is qualified.

specialization: Concentration at school or university on one or a few subjects, usually to the exclusion of others.

GLOSSARY

speech therapy: Correction of defects of speech which have physical causes.

state school: School run by a local education authority; the Department of Education does not run schools directly. (See maintained school.)

streaming: Grouping of children in an age-group according to their ability: the A stream has the brightest children.

student: Pupil at a university or college.

student-teacher: Teacher in training (who usually does teaching practice in a school).

subject examination: Examination, like the G.C.E. (q.v.) in which a candidate may be examined in one or more subjects of his choice.

'swing', the: Jargon for a relatively recent tendency among sixth-form pupils to specialize in science rather than arts (q.v.) subjects.

It is now (in 1964) swinging back.

syllabus: Course of study in a particular subject.

technical college: College offering mainly vocational courses for industrial occupations. There are several kinds: (a) local college, offering mainly part-time courses for more elementary qualifications, e.g. Ordinary National Certificate (q.v.) and City & Guilds (q.v.); (b) area college, offering full-time and part-time courses at a somewhat higher level, e.g. leading to Higher National Certificate (q.v.) and Higher National Diploma (q.v.); (c) regional college offering more advanced work including 'sandwich' courses (q.v.); (d) national college offering advanced courses for the work of specialized industries; (e) college of advanced technology (q.v.).

technical school: Secondary school offering an education particularly related to industry, commerce, or agriculture whose pupils are usually selected after an 11+ examination (q.v.).

technician: Man or woman qualified by specialist technical education and practical training to work under a technologist (q.v.).

technologist: Qualified engineer or applied scientist with the degree (q.v.) or comparable qualification and experience in industry required for membership of a professional institution.

term: The academic year is divided into three parts (or terms) separated by holidays or vacations (q.v.).

theological college: College for training priests or clergymen.

time-table: Plan of lessons and activities in a school.

training college: College for the training of teachers.

GLOSSARY

'trend', the: Jargon for the increasing tendency of pupils to stay at school beyond the compulsory school-leaving age (q.v.).

tripartite system: Theoretical division of secondary education into grammar, technical and secondary modern schools: secondary education is in practice 'bipartite' (q.v.).

tripos: Final examination at Cambridge, normally in two parts, the first of which is taken at the end of a student's first or second year, the second at the end of his third.

tutor: (1) Teacher of a single pupil rather than a class. (2) A member of a college staff with particular responsibility, moral or academic, for some students.

tutorial system: A system of teaching in which a student has some tuition on his own, or in a very small group of students, with a tutor.

undergraduate: Student reading for a first degree at a university.

union: (1) Students' union at a university or college. This is primarily a social club consisting often of various sporting and other clubs and societies, but it can also be a means of expressing students' views on university policy towards them. (2) There is a National Union of Students and a number of teachers' unions of which by far the largest and most representative is the National Union of Teachers. (3) in Oxford and Cambridge, and to some extent in some other universities, the union society is the undergraduate debating society.

university: Chartered institution taking pupils over about 18, devoted to advanced study and research, which has the right to grant the qualification of a degree (q.v.).

university department of education: Institution for training graduates (q.v.) as teachers.

University Grants Committee: Body which distributes grants of money to individual universities.

'unsuitable for education in school': Classification of physically or mentally handicapped children who then become the responsibility of the health authorities.

upper school: (1) Usually fifth and sixth forms of a school. A grammar school (q.v.) expression. (2) Secondary part of an independent or direct-grant school.

vacation: Period between university terms: not called a holiday, because, in theory at least, students and staff spend a large part of the time continuing their work.

GLOSSARY

village college: A secondary modern school and a community centre designed as one: the best-known examples are in Cambridgeshire.

visual aids: Pictures, charts, models, filmstrips, films, and television used by teachers in their lessons.

vocational education: Education or training primarily for a career or job.

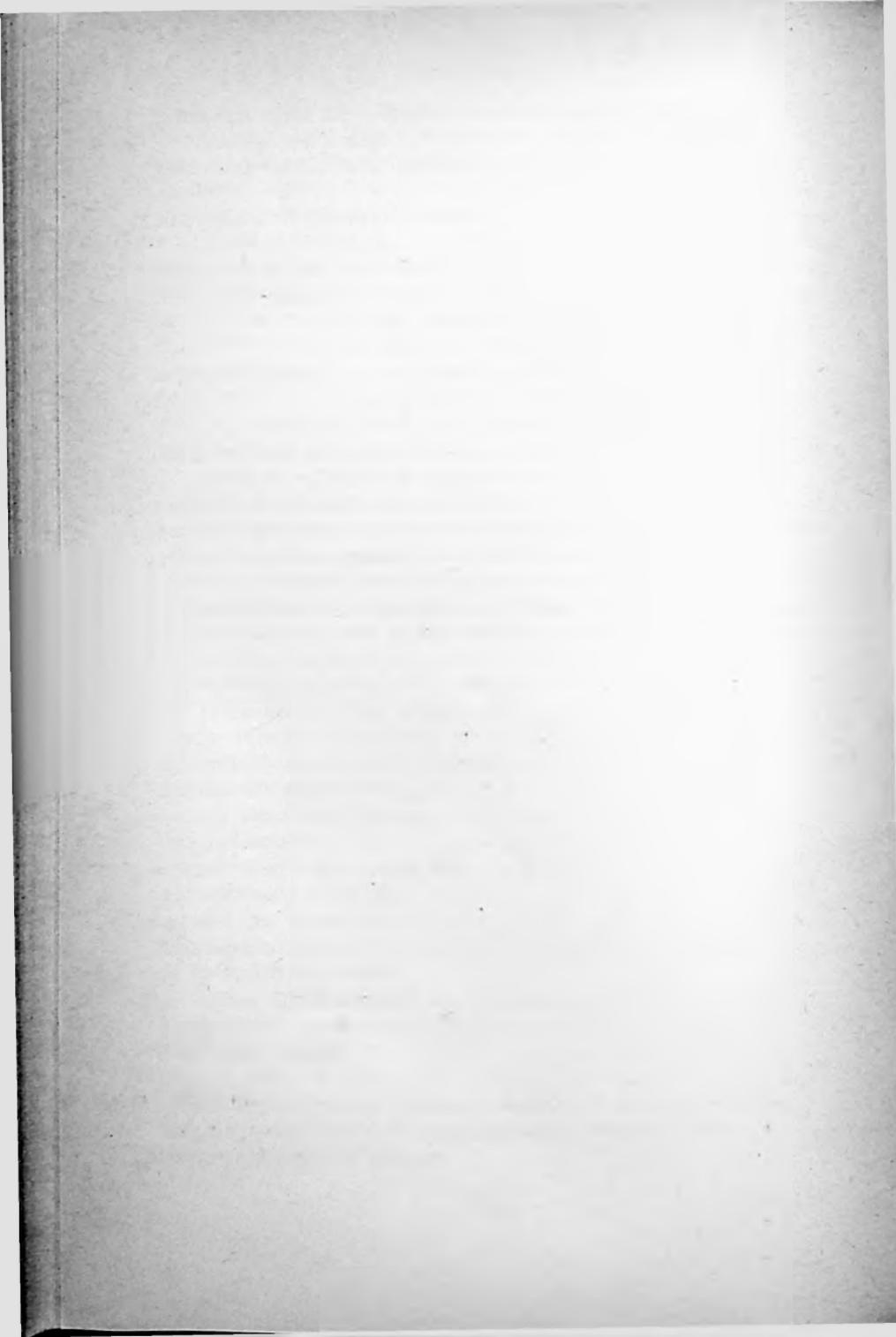
voluntary school: School built by a voluntary body (e.g. a denomination) but maintained by the local education authority. (See aided, controlled, and special agreement schools.)

work-based students: Student doing a 'sandwich' (q.v.) course who is the employee of a particular firm.

year: Way of referring to groups in a school by age (e.g. the 'first year' of a grammar school would be the pupils who have just arrived).

youth employment service: Service usually locally organized by the local education authority but directed and controlled (and in some areas locally organized) by the Ministry of Labour, dealing with the employment and careers of young people from 15 to 18.

youth service: Provision of recreational facilities for young people by the Department of Education, local authorities, and voluntary bodies.



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